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THE PRESIDENT'S VETO.

THERE will be but one opinion in Europe as to the good sense and courage which has been displayed by the PRESIDENT of the United States in placing his veto on the Bill for the increase of the paper currency. The measure was in itself mischievous, as it to a certain extent tended to derange values, and consequently to affect the conditions of existing contracts. The diminution in the actual value of money would have involved a gain to every debtor and a corresponding loss to every creditor; but the greatest damage would in the first instance have fallen on the nation itself, in the form of a disparagement of its credit. The vicious principle of depreciating the currency admitted of indefinite extension. The classes which have lately raised a clamour for additional money would again and again have demanded, on precisely the same grounds, another boon of the same kind. It is probable that the rapid growth of population and trade would after no long interval have absorbed the proposed increase, so that the premium on gold would again have fallen to its recent level. When the circumstances which supplied the pretext for the present agitation recurred, the advocates of expansion would have been enabled to cite the precedent of 1874. The crops require to be moved every year; and the farmers who produce them advance more rapidly in political power than in economic knowledge. Among the numerous delusions which prevail in the Western States, and which found expression in Congress, was the belief that the additional paper money to be issued by the Treasury and by the banks could be appropriated to certain States or districts which were supposed to be most urgently in need of pecuniary accommodation. If the Bill had come into operation, the hopes of many of its promoters would have been disappointed by the irresistible tendency of money, as of other commodities, to flow in the direction where it may be most profitably employed; but the experience which is derived from complicated and obscure processes conveys little instruction to the popular mind. If, after the inflation of the currency, money had still been scarce in the West, the inconvenience would have been generally attributed to the insufficient liberality of Congress.

The PRESIDENT's decision is unexpected as well as wise, for in a recent Message he had voluntarily entered into an apology for Mr. BOUTWELL's illegal reissue of the greenbacks which had been withdrawn from circulation by Mr. McCULLOCH. The argument was evidently the production of a vigorous mind, insufficiently furnished with special knowledge, and only recently familiar with the subject of the controversy. Many instances have been known of the attraction which financial questions exercise on intellects which have previously been exercised only on military affairs. It may be doubted whether General GRANT appreciates all the bearings of the dispute on which he has arrived at a sound conclusion; but there is every reason to believe that he has formed his judgment for himself. His Secretary of the Treasury, Mr. RICHARDSON, was unknown as a financier until he became the subordinate colleague of Mr. BOUTWELL. No other member of the Cabinet is known to have studied either the question of the currency or any branch of economic science. General BUTLER, who has been considered to possess greater influence with the PRESIDENT than any other non-official adviser, was the principal manager of the scheme of inflation, as of every other measure which savours of dishonesty and corruption. It may be conjectured that General GRANT has fastened on the sound proposition that it is expedient to return to specie

payments at the earliest possible moment. It would be an obvious inference that a larger additional issue of greenbacks and bank notes tended to postpone resumption, and, if it were repeated, to perpetuate the evils of an irredeemable currency. The PRESIDENT may perhaps have been further enlightened by the failure of Mr. RICHARDSON's absurd scheme of a large increase of the circulation of silver. No economic subtlety is required to discern the truth that the specie currency will be easily restored as soon as the notes in circulation approach to their nominal value. In his Message the PRESIDENT broached some questionable theories on the advantage which was to accrue to the United States Treasury from the production of precious metals in California. Gold, whether it is produced at home or abroad, must be bought when it is wanted; but if some fallacies have impaired the economic orthodoxy of the PRESIDENT's mode of reasoning, he has nevertheless decided rightly on the main issue.

It was correctly anticipated that the PRESIDENT's veto would be sustained, inasmuch as it would be impossible to procure a majority of two-thirds for the Bill in the Senate, and probably in the House of Representatives. In Mr. ANDREW JOHNSON's time the extreme unpopularity of the President created a prejudice against every political decision which he announced; but General GRANT is still highly popular with the Republican party, and more especially with the majority in Congress. General BUTLER's success in carrying the inflation Bill through the House was probably facilitated by the erroneous assumption that on financial as on political questions he expressed the PRESIDENT's opinions and wishes. The check interposed by the veto has given members of both branches of the Legislature an opportunity of reconsidering their recent vote. The unanimous opinion of every theoretical and practical economist in the United States will derive fresh weight from the official support which the PRESIDENT has for the first time afforded to sound principles of currency. Timid politicians who are in the habit of conforming to every delusion which they believe to be popular will now perceive the possibility of resistance. The Republican party will be compelled to remain neutral, because it cannot afford, after the many rude shocks which have been given to its credit, to repudiate the PRESIDENT as its most conspicuous ornament. It may even occur to party managers that plausible professions of public and private honesty might not be wholly useless at future elections. There are many indications of a tendency on the part of the people at large to rebel against the unscrupulous domination of General BUTLER and his associates. The candidate whom BUTLER opposed has lately been elected Governor of Massachusetts; and in American politics the tide is wont to turn rapidly. The veto on the Currency Bill will deprive General BUTLER of one of his main resources, by proving that the PRESIDENT is not absolutely under his control. If places are no longer at General BUTLER's disposal, his influence will be largely curtailed.

The extraordinary power which has just been exercised was deliberately, and perhaps wisely, entrusted by the founders of the Constitution to the PRESIDENT. The veto constitutes the only immediate connexion between the Executive authority and the Legislature. Checks on the abuse of power are nowhere more necessary than in democracies, and in the United States the most elaborate impediments are provided against hasty decisions. The Senate is perfectly independent of the House of Representatives, and it has always been more highly respected. In any case in which public opinion is strong and decided

the PRESIDENT can only cause a short delay by the exercise of the veto. It is not to be regretted that a numerical majority even of both branches of Congress should be prevented from passing a measure which is condemned by all competent and independent authorities. There is indeed no reasonable presumption that a President chosen for his personal eminence in another branch of the public service will be more capable than the Senate or the House of Representatives of deciding a financial question on sound principles. In this case the PRESIDENT happens to be in the right, and he might possibly at other times have the opportunity of preventing more flagrant scandals than a dilution of the currency. Not many years have passed since the House of Representatives, then as now under the baneful influence of General BUTLER, passed by overwhelming majorities resolutions for the partial repudiation of the National Debt. It is true that the danger and disgrace were averted by the interposition of the Senate, and that the PRESIDENT of the day was an advocate of the wildest projects of spoliation; but experience shows that it is well to have a complex security against rash and unprincipled legislation. The credit of the United States will be sensibly improved by the action of the PRESIDENT, who will have determined the fiscal policy of the country at large till the end of the present Session of Congress. Before schemes of inflation are again introduced, instructed opinion will perhaps have time to prevail over popular clamour. The advantages of honesty and the convenience of specie currency cannot but approve themselves to the judgment of the best part of the community.

ELECTION PETITIONS.

THERE was much violence, some intimidation, and some treating and bribery at the last election; but, so far as the evidence on the various petitions as yet decided shows, there was not so much as in days before the Ballot Act. Lying, of course, there was to a wholly unprecedented extent; but then lying is a part of the machinery of the Act, which would be almost wholly inoperative unless it gave the honest liar a sense of British independence and security. Fortunately for him, scrutinies are very expensive and very uncertain in their result, or else he might dread detection after all. Possibly the history of the Petersfield scrutiny will make the process seem even less attractive to defeated candidates than it used to be. Formerly the agents for the two candidates knew that, if they showed that a vote was invalid, they clearly scored a point in the game, and one vote less was reckoned to the credit of their opponents. But now, after the voter has been shown not to have been entitled to vote, his vote is traced as the Act prescribes; and then it may be found, as was actually found more than once during the Petersfield inquiry, that the voter voted precisely the other way from that which had been supposed, and the adventurous agent has only succeeded in knocking off a vote from his own side. But the threat of a scrutiny may be used with very considerable effect in small constituencies, although there may be no real intention of having one. When every man is known, and strong pressure is put on voters personally by those who have in one way or another authority over them, the assurance that the Ballot will give no protection, and that votes will be known sooner or later through a scrutiny, will carry with it some terrors to the ignorant and timid. Soon after the last general election the history of a contest in a small constituency was related with great apparent fidelity in a letter to the *Times*, and the narrator asserted that the voters were freely plied with threats that the Ballot was not to be trusted, and that their votes would be known some day. Bribery was no doubt checked in a very considerable degree by the Ballot, although it still survives in many constituencies as one of the traditions of the place. The sitting member for Wakefield has been displaced on account of the indiscretion of his agents in giving money; and the town seems to have been long accustomed to get money out of elections, and very unwilling to give up the custom. The presiding Judge even doubted whether there had not been enough bribery to make the election generally bad, without the proof that distinct acts had been brought home to persons for whom, as his agents, the sitting member was responsible. The evidence had shown that there was no reluctance in the minds of many voters to take money and to avow they

had taken it. They treated it as a matter of course, and owned that they had been bribed without any sense of shame. The evil, however, had not extended far enough into the constituency to make it necessary for a special inquiry to be held, and a new writ was issued for Wakefield directly the Judge's report was received. At Barnstaple the sitting member was charged with having personally bribed a voter, a charge which is exceedingly seldom made. It was made on the sole testimony of a retired policeman, who saw, as he swore, Mr. CAVE drop two sovereigns into the hands of a voter under pretence of shaking hands with him. The Judge decided that Mr. CAVE was too intelligent to have committed himself by so very foolish an act in broad daylight, in a public place; and he remarked that the whole story probably grew out of the fervent fancy of the retired policeman, who, even in his leisure hours, remembered his ancient business, and was delighted to think that he could show how keen is the vision of a practised detective.

The question who is an agent at elections is one that is always turning up under some new form, and Mr. Justice GROVE, in delivering his judgment in the Wakefield case, said that it was essential that this question should never be answered judicially. If it was once laid down who is an agent, the ingenuity of election managers would get all the dangerous things done by persons who were just outside the definition. All that Mr. Justice GROVE would say was, that the candidate was responsible generally for all those who, to his knowledge, carried on the purpose of promoting his election. This is a very wide measure of responsibility, and in the case of the Stroud Petition it was fatal to the two sitting candidates. There, a breakfast given on the morning of the election in a Congregational school, arranged by ladies and blessed by the countenance of the minister himself, was held enough to make void the return of the candidates for whom the ladies were innocently striving, and the heedless pastor was stimulating his flock. There could be no doubt that this minister was a person whom the candidates knew to be desirous to promote their election, and he prosecuted it without having a suspicion that he was doing wrong by taking part in getting up a breakfast for voters on their way to the poll. It was, however, principally the ladies of his congregation who did this act of disastrous kindness, and it was apparently the ladies who bore the expense. The treating was of the very mildest kind. No one had any notion that it was illegal, and the candidates themselves had never heard of it. That any voter was in the very smallest degree influenced by this chaste repast is altogether improbable. The British voter, when he lets his great soul be influenced by treating, is not the sort of person to let himself be corrupted for so poor an inducement as tea and toast early in the morning in a Congregational schoolroom. But it was held that the details must be left out of sight. The Judge forced himself to forget the ladies, the minister, the tea and toast, the rigid purity of the locality, and to attend only to the fact that batches of persons, sometimes numbering twenty-five at once, had been provided with refreshments on the morning of the election by a person who, according to the canons of election law, was an agent of the candidates. But the Judges all agree in saying that the decision in one case must never be taken as a precedent. The Judge does not lay down any general propositions. He only decides what, in the case before him, shall be taken to have been agency and refreshment and treating. Unfortunately for the sitting members at Stroud, one of their avowed agents, who was charged with direct bribery, had taken to flight when it was known that the petitioners were in earnest; nor was he the only person who had vanished in undisguised fear of what the petition might reveal. There was something, therefore, in the history of the process by which the sitting members had been returned which would not bear investigation; and the perception of this probably quickened Baron BRAINWELL's acuteness when he came to look at the story of the breakfast in its legal light.

If Stroud furnished an example of what little things may make void an election, Windsor furnished an example equally striking of what a candidate may do and yet retain his seat. Mr. GARDNER, the sitting member, had been for some years most diligently engaged in nursing the borough. He had bought a large amount of cottage property, had evicted tenants who were not Conservatives, while Conservatives who were ten or twelve weeks in arrears for rent were allowed to stay on, and he very handsomely

gave his tenants all round presents of coal in winter. At first he did this because there happened to be a flood, and he pitied the poor people in their sudden distress. Afterwards, in his own frank language, he contained the gifts, flood or no flood. He stated that he had originally bought the cottages because he was influenced by a hope that the cottages might help him to become member for the borough. When in 1868 he found that several of his tenants had voted against him, he owned that he did not like it. Immediately after the election two or three men were turned out at once, and Mr. GARDNER could only say that there might have been other reasons why they were turned out besides the fact that they had voted against him. He would not own to having told a tenant that, if he became a member of the Conservative Working Men's Association, he would allow him to remain in his house; but he acknowledged, in reply to a question put to him by the Judge, that he could not honestly deny that he was in such a frame of mind that such a remark might naturally have fallen from him. Mr. GARDNER had the power of preserving a most convenient haziness of mind. When he sent out the coal he was, he said, thinking of getting hold of voters, but it did not occur to him that he would influence them in that way. He believed kindness of feeling often produced support at an election. He could not say he intended it should, but he hoped that it would. This, no doubt, is exactly the state of intelligence in which a judicious man will strive to be who sets himself to nurse a borough; and Baron BRAMWELL laid down that a man may nurse a borough, may give gifts in the hope of awakening a beneficial spirit of kindness towards him, and may turn out tenants or let them go on without paying, according to their political opinions, provided only that he stops his nursing so nicely and critically that it cannot be shown to have been going on in distinct connexion with the election when he is returned. Mr. GARDNER's nursing seems to have got itself established so effectually soon after the election of 1868 that he had no occasion by distinct acts of continuance to bring it down to the eve of the election of this year. But Baron BRAMWELL enunciated a doctrine that must be full of comfort to those who may be afraid lest their nursing should be found to have been dangerously protracted. He held that the Ballot Act must be taken into account. The voter may now vote safely, and the future candidate cannot reckon on him. Those voters, therefore, who come under the operation of nursing must be taken to have been approached as men who might just as likely as not disappoint their kind friend or watchful landlord; and as this must make the intentions of the nurser very vague, all he does must be regarded as done with very vague intentions. One decision, however, is not to be taken as a precedent for another; and some day a case may arise in which very judicious nursing may be regarded with severity by a judge, and this peculiar theory as to the effect of the Ballot Act may be found to have been discarded as suddenly as it was invented.

good as good men, and that, if the Home Government is sure that its men are good, it need not look very closely into the measures they adopt. In this case the Government had full confidence in Lord NORTHBROOK and full confidence in Sir GEORGE CAMPBELL. The change of Ministry happily made no difference in this respect. Lord SALISBURY's attitude towards the VICEROY is the same as the Duke of ARGYLL'S. No praise can be greater or better deserved than Lord SALISBURY'S praise of Lord NORTHBROOK in his speech on Friday week. "The resolution to maintain his own opinion between two adverse forces of criticism acting on him at the same time in a capricious and fitful manner, and yet with extreme violence; the resolution to adhere steadily to the views he had formed upon thought and inquiry, and to carry them out to a successful issue—these are the qualities which make a great administrator and secure lasting and never-failing fame"; and these are the qualities which the SECRETARY OF STATE attributes to the VICEROY.

We have now the means of estimating the amount of difference between Lord NORTHBROOK and Sir GEORGE CAMPBELL, both on the question of prohibition of exports and on the nature and extent of the relief to be provided by the Government. As regards the first point, it appears that Sir GEORGE CAMPBELL'S appeal for prohibition was mainly founded on his belief that the requisite supplies of rice could be obtained in no other way. On the 22nd of October he represented that, "in the face of a general failure in Bengal, any supply that could be derived from British Burmah . . . would go but a very little way." Two months later he had seemingly abandoned this view. His letter of the 23rd of December rests the case for prohibition on the plea of superior simplicity. "After all that is being done," he says, "the food supply of the country will be much less than if the Government had simply prohibited exports and had imported nothing." If for "much less" we read "about the same," this is probably an accurate statement of what has proved to be the fact. The policy of purchase as opposed to that of prohibition had, in Sir GEORGE CAMPBELL'S opinion, the further disadvantage that it kept down prices, and so tended unduly to lessen the general food supply of the country. This is the very disadvantage attributed by the VICEROY to the opposite policy. It had been urged upon him that "the action of the Government in prohibiting exports would have given confidence to the country, and have had a great effect in reducing prices;" and in his Minute of the 30th of January Lord NORTHBROOK argues that no interference of the Government could have been "more unwise than the reduction of prices below their natural level at the beginning of a period of scarcity," which "would have been the effect which would probably have followed a prohibition of exports." It will be seen that Sir GEORGE CAMPBELL does not touch upon Lord NORTHBROOK'S other objection to prohibition—that by lessening the inducement to grow in average years more food than is required to meet the home demand, it would lessen the natural and ordinary reserve of grain, and so "weaken the power of the country to meet any future period of scarcity." In Sir GEORGE CAMPBELL'S letter of the 23rd of December there is another curious instance of the same argument being used by him and by Lord NORTHBROOK to establish opposite conclusions. "In all these matters," he says, "the action of the Government has an effect quite disproportioned to the actual magnitude of its operations. . . . In the height of a famine the quantity of grain which Government could throw in, by allaying panic and bringing out private stores, eases the people and the country to a degree far beyond the actual food supplied." Lord NORTHBROOK makes this disproportionate effect of Governmental action a reason for keeping his imports strictly secret. In the height of a famine the knowledge that the Government is prepared to do a great deal may allay panic among the people, but in the beginning of a famine the knowledge that the Government is preparing to do a great deal may generate a panic among the traders. The keynote of Lord NORTHBROOK'S policy was his desire that this should not happen, and he thoroughly succeeded in impressing this desire on the Home Government. When the Duke of ARGYLL asked the House of Lords to consider what must be the extent and energy of a private trade which provides food for a population of seventy millions, most of it living from hand to mouth, and insisted that any interference with this trade "might have led to a famine with which

LORD NORTHBROOK AND SIR GEORGE CAMPBELL.

THE true relation between the Government of India and the Home Government was very well described by the Duke of ARGYLL on Friday week. The Home Government is a Government of Control—a Government which decides the policy to be pursued in India, but does not, and cannot to any good purpose, prescribe the particular measures by which that policy is to be carried out. It is responsible for the choice in the first instance of the men whom it commissions to frame these particular measures, and for the continuance or withdrawal of its confidence in them; but it is not responsible—not, that is, immediately and directly responsible—for particular acts of administration. It is conceivable, of course, that these acts of administration may be such conspicuous failures as to reflect decisive discredit either upon the policy of which they are the expression or upon the choice of administrators, and in this way the Home Government may indirectly become responsible for them. But this is necessarily a responsibility after the event. The duty of the Home Government on the first news of any emergency in India is to decide what is to be done and who is to do it; the decision how it is to be done belongs to the Government of India. The Duke of ARGYLL is quite right when he says that no measures are so

"previous famines would have borne no comparison," he gave utterance to the dread which in the early months of the famine took precedence perhaps of all other causes of alarm in the VICEROY's mind. Here is a private trade which in ordinary years feeds seventy millions of people. In a year of famine it will only feed perhaps sixty-five millions, leaving the remaining five millions to be fed by the Government. But if the determination of the Government to feed these five millions becomes known too early, it will paralyse the private trade and leave so many more millions to be fed by the Government. We know of no answer to this reasoning, and Sir GEORGE CAMPBELL did not attempt to offer any.

This apprehension on the part of the VICEROY necessarily affected the policy adopted as regards the provision of relief. In a letter written on the 10th of November, Sir GEORGE CAMPBELL pointed out that, if the object of the Government was to avert distress altogether, it was scarcely possible to begin relief soon enough, or to carry it far enough. "We must scatter relief houses broadly, so as to have one for every group of villages, within reach of every one's home. . . . To be on the safe side, he would at once undertake very extensive measures indeed; he would buy grain very largely wherever it is to be had, procure and use every possible means of transport, and prepare food depots in almost every part" of the threatened districts. Sir GEORGE CAMPBELL admits that these endeavours must be controlled and limited by considerations of Imperial finance. But it does not seem to have struck him that they ought also to be controlled and limited by considerations of the effect which the creation of such a vast apparatus at the first appearance of scarcity must have had both on the people and on the private traders. As regards the former, the result would probably have been to induce a general abandonment of work as unnecessary in presence of the munificent provision contemplated by the Government. As regards the latter, there would have been a corresponding abandonment of all efforts to meet the wants of a population which, instead of having to buy food for itself, relied upon having it furnished gratuitously. The native dealers would not have troubled themselves to calculate the precise percentage of the population which the Government was preparing to take off their hands. They would have retired submissively before the omnipotent agency which had supplanted them, and have either taken their stores to other districts or have themselves become pensioners of the Government. In both the points, therefore, on which Lord NORTHBROOK and Sir GEORGE CAMPBELL took different views, the former had the right on his side. It is to be regretted that there should have been any divergence of opinion between two such high authorities as the VICEROY and the Lieutenant-Governor of BENGAL as to the policy by which the famine was to be met. But now that the reasons alleged on each side are before us, there is no room for doubt that, in supporting Lord NORTHBROOK rather than Sir GEORGE CAMPBELL, the Home Government showed a sound appreciation of the dangers as well as the necessities of the situation.

MR. GLADSTONE ON THE DISSOLUTION.

THE controversy or one-sided discussion on the policy of the late dissolution of Parliament is, it may be hoped, finally closed. It is clear from Mr. GLADSTONE's indignant justification of his conduct that he is conscious of having committed a grave mistake. His irritation may be attributed partly to the injustice of Mr. SMOLLETT's attack, and in no small degree to the weakness of the case for the defence. A great orator and statesman less single-minded than Mr. GLADSTONE would not have failed to avenge himself on a troublesome and insignificant assailant by contemptuous silence or by tranquil sarcasm. Mr. SMOLLETT's position would have been painfully ridiculous if he had been the only speaker, or if he had been merely followed by Mr. WHALLEY. A stickler for precedent and for historical accuracy who believes that the Peace of Amiens lasted till 1806 is not a formidable critic of political conduct. It is but just to admit that Mr. SMOLLETT scarcely affected to be in earnest, and that Mr. GLADSTONE misunderstood and exaggerated the offensive character of his careless language. There was little dignity in the demand that Mr. SMOLLETT should withdraw the word "trickster," which he had only applied in a meta-

phorical or indirect sense. It seems that the dissolution and its failure reminded Mr. SMOLLETT "of an engineer hoist with his own petard, of a plot which had failed, of a trickster whose stratagem recoiled on himself," and perhaps of half-a-dozen other commonplace illustrations. If he called Mr. GLADSTONE a trickster, he must also have called him an engineer, and have pledged himself to the identity of the Greenwich address with the obsolete engine known as a petard. Mr. GLADSTONE surpasses his chief Parliamentary rival in knowledge of business, in earnestness, and in some other qualities, but in managing personal squabbles he may well take a lesson from Mr. DISRAEELI. The gift of humour is indispensable to the judicious conduct of relations with friends, and much more with enemies. Mr. DISRAEELI would either have declined such a combat, or he would by some happy phrase have turned the laugh on his unequal adversary. Mr. GLADSTONE'S apology for himself seemed to imply that the charges which he repelled were plausible and serious.

The theory that Mr. GLADSTONE devised and executed a tortuous plot is not only untrue, but the reverse of the truth. It is perfectly clear that the dissolution resulted from a sudden impulse, which must have arisen after a deputation had been invited to Downing Street to "tinker" "the British Constitution." Mr. GLADSTONE's peculiarities of intellect and temperament are not those of a conspirator. A tendency to believe profoundly in the convictions of the moment is scarcely compatible with far-reaching and subtle contrivances. There can be no doubt that the financial projects which occupied the most conspicuous place in the Greenwich proclamation also furnished the principal motive for a sudden political experiment. The occasional elections, resulting almost uniformly in defeats of the Government candidate, showed that the constituencies no longer felt the enthusiastic confidence in Mr. GLADSTONE which had prevailed at the beginning of his Administration. It seemed probable that the progress of reaction might be checked if the attention of the country were diverted to a brilliant scheme for the readjustment of taxes. The innovation of appealing to the country on a Budget, instead of submitting it to Parliament, admits of no excuse; but the opportunity of distributing an unprecedented surplus so as to revive the popularity of his Government imposed on the imagination of a Minister who is incapable of looking at the same time on both sides of a question. Mr. GLADSTONE confesses that he had, in common with the rest of the world, taken for granted that a Liberal majority would be returned to the next Parliament. He was therefore more anxious that his party should be docile and zealous than that it should be extraordinarily strong in numbers. In the previous Session there had been many indications of relaxed discipline, which in the matter of the Irish Universities Bill had assumed the form of open mutiny. A Ministerial majority fresh from the constituencies, and virtually pledged to Mr. GLADSTONE'S election Budget, might have been trusted to follow his guidance. In a hasty moment, probably without consultation with any competent and independent adviser, he was guilty, not of a dark intrigue, but of an act of rash impatience. Many of his supporters, even though they were not, as Mr. WHALLEY erroneously fancies himself to have been, in prison, must have been annoyed at the disregard of their convenience which was shown in the hasty dissolution. Mr. GLADSTONE's argument that the interval between the dissolution and the elections is regulated by uniform practice was quite irrelevant to the charge. Nothing is easier than to give notice of an intended dissolution in sufficient time to allow of preparations for the contest.

One of Mr. GLADSTONE's intellectual characteristics is a habit of first forming conclusions and then devising reasons by which they may be justified. When he was suddenly converted to the Ballot, he persuaded himself that he must previously have become convinced of the expediency of universal suffrage; and he then proceeded to prove by some recondite process of reasoning that secret voting was the natural result of a promiscuous franchise. In the same manner Mr. GLADSTONE in his recent apology informed the House of Commons that it had become necessary to dissolve Parliament because the Government meditated a Bill on local rating. Only the day before Mr. GLADSTONE expressed a qualified approval of Sir STAFFORD NORTHCOTE'S proposal to contribute a million from the national revenue in aid of the rates. On Thursday nothing interfered with the candid consideration of a simple

plan; on Friday the measure which the present Ministers adopt without objection from any quarter was proved to have been absolutely inadmissible on the part of their predecessors. It was, according to Mr. GLADSTONE, impossible that any relief should be afforded to ratepayers until their relative liabilities among themselves were finally settled, and also until an elaborate and perfect scheme of local government was sanctioned by Parliament. In such an undertaking it was undoubtedly probable that some difficulties might occur; and on some disputed points the Ministerial majority might perhaps have been impaired. The consequence might have been a dissolution in the middle of the Session, to the serious detriment of public business. If the excuse for the precipitate measure of January last is valid, it will equally apply to the most capricious repetition of the unsuccessful experiment. Fortunately, future Ministers, when they are tempted to risk their fortunes on the cast of a die, will be warned by Mr. GLADSTONE's example, and will probably have forgotten the excuses which have been produced by an afterthought. Mr. GLADSTONE might have spared himself the trouble of explaining that he had not before him the alternative of resigning office in preference to the plan of dissolving Parliament. Although he has not yet forgiven Mr. DISRAELI for refusing to accept office a year ago, he apparently understands that a Minister with a majority of sixty can scarcely resign because he thinks it possible that some of his supporters may waver on disputed questions. In January there was no reason for a dissolution except the unfounded hope of strengthening the Government, and there was no reason, good or bad, for resignation.

The alarms which were caused by the rumour of Mr. GLADSTONE's intention to retire from Parliamentary debate have been happily dissipated. In the short interval since the commencement of the Session he has delivered four or five elaborate speeches, extending over a longer time than has been occupied by all the Ministers together, if the special statements of the heads of department are omitted from the comparison. The Session will probably have been the least exciting within living memory; but it would have been duller still if Mr. GLADSTONE had abdicated the post which he may probably long continue to adorn. Mr. DISRAELI during the later part of his conduct of Opposition maintained a silence which was rarely broken, and he has been equally reserved since his accession to office. Success may perhaps have confirmed his opinion that speech is rather an instrument for attaining certain ends than an object or occupation of independent value. It is highly desirable that there should be a variety of tastes in Parliament and among its principal members. It would be a great loss if Mr. GLADSTONE were to intermit opportunities of instruction, of criticism, of apology, and of all other applications of a copious and impressive eloquence. Any opponent can with the utmost ease let loose the torrent at the risk of being himself submerged; nor is the pleasure of provoking retaliation from an indignant statesman of the highest rank likely to be despised by candidates for Parliamentary notoriety. If Mr. SMOLLETT had been still more reckless in his imputations, and still more inaccurate in his historical dates, he would have done some service by inducing Mr. GLADSTONE to deliver an eloquent speech containing a negative demonstration that the late dissolution admitted of no tenable excuse.

THE POPULATION OF FRANCE.

M. RAUDOT, who has for some years made it his melancholy business to record and lament over the decreasing population of France, has published in a recent number of the *Correspondant* a summary of the deductions he draws from the Census Returns of 1872. The proper year to terminate the usual quinquennial period was 1871, but France had other things to attend to in that year, and it is therefore a period of six years that is included in the Returns which M. RAUDOT discusses. In 1866 France had a population of 38,065,594, and France had in 1872 1,964,173 less, which, after allowing about 1,600,000 for the loss of the population of the ceded provinces, shows an actual diminution of 369,110. But M. RAUDOT is not satisfied with this figure, and thinks that the real decrease is considerably larger. There must first be added those Alsatians and Lorrainers who exercised the option of passing into France and remaining French citizens, and they amounted in 1872 to 126,243. Then there were nearly 100,000 more foreigners living in

France in 1872 than in 1866, of whom 64,000 were Alsatians or Lorrainers who changed their nationality, but chose to reside as foreigners in France. If the births and deaths during the six years are compared, there appears to have been an excess of 368,580 of deaths over births, and this is the first period since the beginning of the century when this deficit has shown itself. It is true that in 1854 and 1855 the deaths exceeded the births; but in the other three years of the quinquennial period the births so largely exceeded the deaths that the average showed a preponderance of births, and the total increase of population was at nearly the normal rate, or a quarter of a million in five years. It is of course in the agricultural districts that the diminution of population most shows itself. The towns have increased, and it is worthy of notice that, in spite of the siege and the Commune, the population of Paris was larger by 26,518 in 1872 than in 1866, and the town population of France generally showed a gain of 276,000. If we add to this figure that of the general diminution of population in number, we find that the country districts have lost no less than 645,000; or, if the department of the Seine is looked on, as M. RAUDOT thinks it ought to be, as containing a population that is really urban, the total loss of the country districts reaches 700,000. It is also to be noticed, in the opinion of M. RAUDOT, that the immigrants into the cities from the rural districts are mostly persons in the flower of life; and the drain on the labouring strength of the country is therefore more severe than the mere figures would indicate. The consequence is, M. RAUDOT says, that there is a deficiency of hands to carry out agricultural operations properly. Unfortunately he considers it enough to state this without entering into any details, and yet it is precisely at this point that details are needed. There may have been too large an agricultural population. In England the number of the agricultural population decreased in the ten years between 1861 and 1871, and yet it is evident that in many districts there are still more hands than can be employed at remunerative wages. 700,000 is no doubt a very large decrease for so short a period as six years, but whether the supply of agricultural labourers is short in France, or whether it is merely that those who pay wages find they have to give more than is agreeable to them, is the real point to be decided, and it is one on which M. RAUDOT throws no light whatever.

It is natural to suppose that the war may have been the principal cause of the decrease of population, but such a supposition harmonizes too imperfectly with M. RAUDOT's general gloomy views for him to subscribe to it. He cannot allow accidental influences to interfere with his persuasion that his country is going to the dogs. If the French soldiers, he says, had really died in any very great numbers, whether from wounds, cold, sickness, or want, we should see a striking difference between the numbers of men and women in the returns of the last Census. But in 1872 there were 137,000 more women than men as against 37,000 in 1866. We may breathe a sigh in passing over these unfortunate 100,000 Frenchwomen for whom there is no demand, but M. RAUDOT thinks the number small, considering all that has happened to thin the male population. The war has come and gone, and there are only 100,000 men less. Then it may be remarked that the diminution of the population did not take place exclusively, or even principally, in those departments which the war reached; 30 departments were invaded, and 56 were not. Of these 56, although 14 gained in population during the six years, yet 42 lost, and they even lost more in proportion than the departments that were invaded. The whole number of persons who died from the war, according to M. RAUDOT, is 100,000. Whether such statements are to be quite trusted is, however, very doubtful; for when the calculations are extended over so many years, it is almost impossible to say whether the general result gives the true key to any particular set of facts. The deaths of the year beginning July 1870 and closing with the end of June 1871 were nearly 450,000 beyond the average, and as the average is only 865,000, the death-rate was more than half as large again as it usually is. M. RAUDOT points out that the death-rate was also unusually large in the first half-year of 1870, before the war began, and therefore all the increase of the year dating from the commencement of the war must not be set down to the war itself, as other causes were probably at work which would have swollen the rate. But it is to be supposed that all the soldiers who fell in the bloody battles round Metz were really entered in any proper

list of deaths? This seems most improbable, and it is certainly very unlikely that the war and the Commune really cost France only 100,000 men. No doubt, however, it is true that war does not affect a population so much as it is natural to suppose. The total population of France was greater at the date of Waterloo than it had been ten years before, although those ten years had been years of incessant fighting; and Germany gained a million in population in the four years ending with the close of 1871. Germany, it may be mentioned, has now, with Alsace and German Lorraine reckoned as part of it, as nearly as possible 41 millions of population, whereas the total population of France, now that Alsace and German Lorraine are gone, is as nearly as possible 36 millions; and in Germany the rate of increase is much more rapid than it was in France, even in happier days. The rate of increase in Prussia happens, if reliance is to be placed on tables prepared in 1865, to be exactly the same as it is in England, and is such that the population would double itself in 55 years; while in France the population, which was increasing in 1865, was increasing so slowly that 183 years would have elapsed before, at the then rate, it would have doubled itself.

M. RAUDOT is perfectly right in thinking that the diminution of population in France is in some ways injurious to the country. The relative greatness of France must suffer if her neighbours keep growing in numbers and she does not; and France, by having no spare population to send abroad, must exercise less influence on the world generally in face of the emigration of the English and the Germans, and the spread of Russia over Eastern Asia. Thirty-six millions of a brave, wealthy, and energetic race are not likely to be often molested if they are content to act on the defensive, and give no trouble to their neighbours. But France can no longer take the place which Frenchmen love to claim for it, that of the glory, and it may be added the bully, of the civilized world, if even so much humbler a country as Italy gains in ten years, as it did between 1861 and 1871, nearly two millions. M. RAUDOT does not inform us whether he makes allowance for the additions of Venice and Rome, which took place in that period, but we must suppose for his credit as a statistician that he did so, and the rate of increase he assigns to Italy is less than that which is observable in the instances of Austria and England. But what weighs upon him most is that his countrymen actually like to think that the population of France is decreasing, or at any rate they are quite content that it should be stationary. They think it shows how sensible and prudent the French people must be, and certainly it must be said that the French only carry into practice the doctrines of stern political economy which MALTHUS and MILL have preached in vain to more than one improvident and prolific generation. It is in some of the wealthiest districts of France that the population of France refuses to increase. In Normandy, for example, the people are well off, and they avow that, as they like being well off, and intend to be well off, they will not contract foolish marriages. M. RAUDOT is full of scorn for such creatures. They are, he says, like heirs who are rich because they have buried all their relations. They go on lazily and happily in their despicable comfort; and the worst of it is that their countrymen—not the mere silly and uneducated of their countrymen, but men who affect and even attain high places in literature and philosophy—insist on admiring them. They pronounce that everything is for the best, and that France is much happier and richer than she would be if she degraded herself to the level of misery by having a teeming, ill-fed, demoralized population. She does not lack wealth or vital force, as her recovery from the war has shown. She can amuse the world with the splendours of her capital, and will soon open to it the finest, the largest, and the most costly of opera houses. At such reasoners M. RAUDOT laughs as gaily as so sad a philosopher can laugh, and he does not even think their arguments worth a reply. But he raises a question which it is much easier to raise than to answer. Does a country lose or gain most by having a large population and wages kept down by the competition of numbers? England answers the question in one way and France in the other; but if England is wholly right and France wholly wrong, then the lessons of our most respected teachers in political economy have been as theoretically valueless as they have been practically unheeded.

THE LICENSING BILL.

THE difficulties of this subject arise chiefly out of the treatment it has undergone. Attempts to change violently the habits of the people provoke resistance or evasion, but gradual change may be accomplished by judicious legislation. It is generally expedient to promote the early closing of public-houses, and Mr. CROSS is able to make the satisfactory announcement that the publicans desire that which regard for health and economy would alike dictate. We might indeed have assumed without proof that publicans and their servants would share the general feeling in favour of shorter hours of labour, and all the more so because the publican is necessarily kept hard at work when all the world is making holiday. It is almost universally agreed that twelve o'clock is too early an hour for closing in London, and no surprise could have been felt if the publicans had proposed one o'clock. But Mr. CROSS tells us that half-past twelve is the latest hour that has been suggested to him by any person connected with the trade. The only question of any difficulty is that raised by Mr. MELLY, who contends for uniformity of hours as regards public-houses and beer-shops. It must be remembered, however, that Mr. CROSS has to deal with an embarrassment created by his predecessor. The Act of 1872 requires general closing at twelve, but permits the Commissioner of Police to grant "exemption licences" to particular houses. In order to escape the manifest evil of this system of exemptions, Mr. CROSS proposes that all public-houses shall be open till half-past twelve, and then it is said that the same liberty ought to be granted to the beer-shops. But in general the public-houses are under greater security for good behaviour than the beer-shops, and to some extent the "Licensed Victualler" supplies food as well as drink. Whatever difficulty the police may experience from the public-houses remaining open until half-past twelve, we do not think that it would be lessened by allowing the beer-houses to remain open to the same time. Upon this point Mr. CROSS has doubtless taken the opinion of the Police authorities, and he and they together ought to be better judges of it than anybody else. As regards any hardship upon beer-house-keepers from this distinction being made between them and publicans, that might easily be remedied by some abatement of the duty payable by the former class. As regards the hours of Sunday closing, we think that the additional restriction imposed by the Act of 1872 was unnecessary, but we also think that Mr. CROSS has done wisely in maintaining that which he finds established. While it is generally desirable that the laws should be adapted to the habits of the people, it is possible up to a certain point to adapt the habits of the people to the laws. On this account constant changes are to be deprecated, and Parliament should as far as possible discourage the notion that the public convenience will be further sacrificed to Sabbatarian or prohibitionist agitation. If we wish the trade of liquor-selling to be respectable, we must not harass it unnecessarily. It is certainly remarkable that the Adulteration Clauses of the Act of 1872 have been almost entirely inoperative. In the Metropolitan district there has been no prosecution, and in the Northern district there has been no conviction. If these facts may be taken to show that the liquors sold by publicans are more genuine than is generally supposed, we ought, on behalf of the public, to rejoice at it. They show at any rate that customers must be tolerably well satisfied with the articles supplied to them. We have heard so much lately of adulteration of food and drink that it is certainly surprising that beer and spirits should have escaped so easily. It begins to appear probable that the "cream of 'the valley" represents the only genuine milk.

The result which Mr. CROSS derives from the statistics which he quotes ought to encourage the publicans, although it may not be altogether satisfactory to Parliament. There are fewer liquor-shops, and they are better conducted; but more liquor has been consumed, and there have been more convictions for drunkenness than there used to be. This result he ascribes to the increased attention which the keepers of liquor-shops have given to their trade, to the vigilance of the police, to the largely increased wages of the working classes, to the suddenness of this increase, and to the increased leisure which has accompanied it. If more drink is consumed there will be more drunkenness; but the number of convictions for drunkenness will depend much upon the vigilance of the police, and in the Metropolitan district the police have looked after drink-shops,

and probably after drinkers, more closely since the Act of 1872 was passed. As regards the increased consumption, Mr. CROSS rightly ascribes it to the want of sources of enjoyment in persons who have suddenly found themselves in the possession of comparative wealth which they have not been educated to spend rationally. When we consider where and how a collier or puddler is forced to live, it is perhaps wonderful that he does anything except eat, drink, smoke, and sleep when he is not at work. Social reformers, to do any good, must strike at the root of social disorders. Mr. CROSS truly says that drunkenness is one of the great causes of crime and misery, yet it is not the primary cause. "There is another cause, and that is 'the want of happy homes.'" He believes that the movement set on foot to provide the labouring classes with improved dwellings would do more to promote sobriety than any Bill that Parliament could pass. There are persons who expect great results from the Permissive Bill or some other pet project of legislation, but even these persons would agree in trying the method which Mr. CROSS suggests; and if energy were concentrated on that which everybody allows to be useful, it would probably be accomplished. The followers of Sir WILFRID LAWSON would do well "to let alone the good which they cannot do," and confine themselves to that which they can do, by exercising a wholesome and legitimate influence over their friends and relations. If working-men who are earnest in the matter could produce in their own class a general feeling that it is disgraceful to be drunk, they would do more good than can be done by Parliament. The Alliance, however, are not likely to modify their grand design of prohibition.

But when Mr. CROSS turns to the publicans he will obtain, as he deserves, attention. The leaders of that interest ought to be well satisfied with the recent demonstration of their power, and should resolve to use it reasonably. "The great principle," says Mr. CROSS, "in this, as in other trades, should be to encourage the best possible class of persons to engage in it." If Parliament will act consistently on this principle, we believe that the publicans have sufficient prudence to reciprocate the confidence thus shown in them. They must be aware that for many years to come the bulk of the population will resort to them for enjoyment whenever it has money at command, and experience shows that a well-conducted business is generally the most profitable. It is quite possible in this as in other trades to sell by improved arrangements a larger quantity in a shorter time, and the publican may be sure that his position may with prudence be made both lucrative and impregnable. We have heard much from Lord ABERDARE and others about affording facilities for the sale of "innocuous beverages," and the publican may be well content with the result hitherto of the attempt to raise up against him a new class of rivals. Under an Act of Parliament passed about ten years ago, certain houses were left open which went by the name of night-houses; and in London, says Mr. CROSS, there were over one thousand of these night-houses which had a licence to keep open the whole night. They did not actually sell intoxicating liquors, but it was found that they were really the resort of persons who went there because they were driven out of the public-houses; and it was therefore provided that all these houses should be closed at one o'clock, when the public-houses closed. The Act of 1872 did not affect the existing regulations as to these houses, which are allowed therefore to keep open until one o'clock. "We find," says Mr. CROSS, "from the police that the night-houses which now exist are not resorted to in the least by people who want refreshments, but are simply frequented by persons who have been turned out of the public-houses, and who go to them the moment the public-houses are closed." The police report to him that these refreshment-houses are simply the resort of prostitutes and their companions, and moreover that they carry on an illicit trade in spirits; and he proposes that they should be required to close at the same time as the public-houses, which, under the Bill, will be half-past twelve. We are not sure that the description given by the police of these houses would be applicable to all of them, but undoubtedly it is generally correct. The closing of public-houses at twelve o'clock has produced an illicit trade in spirits" at another class of houses which keep open till one o'clock. It is better to modify and legalize that which cannot be prevented. We think that London is not yet prepared to forego all opportunity

of getting a glass of spirits after midnight, and therefore the supply of that article can be best entrusted to the most responsible hands, which are clearly those of the class which the law calls Licensed Victuallers. This class has therefore a position in London which, with prudent management, will be unassailable.

RAILWAYS AND THE STATE.

BOTH Houses have within the last week discussed different questions connected with railways; and some instructive speeches were on both occasions delivered. Lord DELAWARE failed to establish any plausible case for a Commission of inquiry into the management of railways, but the majority of the House of Lords shared the general alarm as to the accidents which so frequently occur. Lord HOUGHTON was perhaps imprudent in undertaking the advocacy of railway directors and managers in opposition to the prevailing sentiment; but Lord SALISBURY, who has, like Lord HOUGHTON, the advantage of practical experience, explained in concise language the extreme difficulty of applying the greater part of the remedies which are commonly suggested. One side of the case has already been stated so strongly that the arguments on the other side deserve especial attention. It is asserted that the Government functionaries who are employed in the supervision of railways are in most instances mere amateurs until they acquire special knowledge in the discharge of their office, and that at the best they are far below the level of railway managers and engineers in professional position. It is probable that in some instances jealousy of interference may produce an indisposition to accept useful suggestions; but, on the other hand, it is desirable that those who administer any complicated and difficult business should be responsible for the details of management. Lord SALISBURY left it in doubt whether he considered it expedient to enforce absolute punctuality on the Companies. Conformity with the time-tables would certainly remove one cause of accidents; but it can only be insured by a general diminution of the speed of trains throughout the kingdom. When the excitement caused by a series of extraordinary disasters was at its height in the course of last winter, railway directors took no trouble to conceal their sanguine hope that they would be compelled by public opinion to lower the speed which they have been induced by the wishes of their customers to maintain. Leisurely and occasional travellers may sometimes be indifferent to the addition of half an hour to the time spent in a railway journey of a hundred miles. Men of business feel that a difference in speed would involve a daily loss of time which has a pecuniary value, and that in some instances it would defeat the calculations on which they have fixed their residence or arranged their habits of life. Two hours added to the journey between London and Edinburgh or Glasgow would greatly increase the fatigue and inconvenience which are to a certain extent inseparable from a journey of four hundred miles. If Parliament meets the wishes of railway directors by compelling them to subside into a Continental mode of conducting their business, the change will be followed by universal discontent. If the Committee of the House of Lords recommends that all Companies shall provide additional lines for the conduct of their traffic, some mode of raising the vast capital which would be required for the purpose ought at the same time to be suggested.

The result of the debate on the proposed purchase of Irish railways was satisfactory and decisive. The representatives of the present and late Governments concurred in the opinion of the great majority of the House that the measure would be highly inexpedient. The discussion was for the most part conducted with creditable calmness and good sense, but Mr. BLENNERHASSETT committed a logical or rhetorical error when he founded his argument for the purchase of Irish railways on the wider proposition that the same course ought to be adopted with respect to all the railways of the United Kingdom. It may perhaps be true that the same principles apply to Great Britain and to Ireland, but the advocate of the less ambitious scheme was injudicious in challenging the opposition which could not fail to be raised against a project for the speculative investment of many hundred millions of public money. The analogy of the Post Office is entirely inapplicable to railways; and the opinion of the House of Commons has not unnaturally been affected by the financial results of the recent purchase of the telegraphs. The duty

of the department is strictly confined to the simple and uniform object of despatching letters and telegraphic messages with regularity and speed. No week passes in which the manager of a large railway is not required to exercise a larger discretion than that which devolves on the Postmaster-General and his assistants in the course of a year. The number of different rates contained in the lists of the different Companies cannot be less than fifteen or twenty millions. Several Companies own from twenty to seventy thousand waggons, which must be distributed for the convenience of consumers in the system to which they belong, and which can only be reclaimed with due regularity from the foreign lines which they traverse by the exercise of unceasing vigilance. The letter-book of a local superintendent at any large centre of traffic would frighten a Post Office clerk who might be required to deal with all the requests and reclamations of consignors and consignees who resent the smallest interruption of their traffic. Railway officials are, luckily for their customers, not at liberty to repress complaints by the peremptory generalities which are familiar to those who address remonstrances to great public departments. The discretion which Railway Boards exercise in the investment of additional capital is regulated by calculations which may be sometimes mistaken, but which are always founded on a careful consideration of the probable advantages of the outlay. No theorist has yet suggested any plausible method of securing on the part of the State the exercise of an equally unbiased discretion.

Having established to his own satisfaction the general expediency of State ownership of railways, Mr. BLENNERHASSETT proceeded to show that if the soundness of the rule were denied, the Irish railways formed an exception. It may be fairly contended that the small magnitude of the Irish railway system makes the experiment comparatively practicable. It is easier to deal with twenty or thirty millions than with twenty times the same amount. The sacrifice which must be incurred by compulsory purchase might be endurable if the acquisition of the railways were otherwise likely to produce great public advantage. The speakers in the debate of Tuesday abstained for the most part from repeating the exaggerated or irrelevant statements which have generally been used in support of the proposal. It would be absurd to undertake a vast speculation because there are too many smaller Companies in Ireland with a proportional and superfluous staff of directors and officers. The remedy for excessive division is union, and the little Companies can, if they think fit, amalgamate themselves with one another, or become annexed to the larger systems. It is not the case that Irish railways are uniformly small or poor. The Great Southern and Western of Ireland is equal or superior in mileage to the Great Northern of England, and on an average of twenty years it has paid a better dividend. Both the directors and the shareholders have repeatedly expressed the strongest repugnance to the transfer of their property to the Government. The Midland, Great Western, and some other larger Companies are prosperous and efficient; and those lines which at present produce no dividend command a price in the market which represents the hopes of the present holders. The State would in the contingency of purchase be required to pay, even at the market price, a considerable sum for lines which at present yield no profit. The promoters of the plan simultaneously propose to lower the rates, to increase the accommodation, and in general to swell the original outlay of capital by a large addition to the working expenses. All that was valuable would be taken against the will of the owners; the properties which were voluntarily sold would be of little value, and the purchaser would be expected to deteriorate both classes of railways still further by increasing the cost of working and by contenting himself with diminished receipts. The further difficulty of dealing with incessant demands for extension would be both financially and politically embarrassing.

The Irish members are perfectly in the right when they hold that the prosperity of their country would be greatly advanced by the construction of additional railways. Unfortunately Irish railway enterprise offers little attraction to English capitalists; and the large sums which are accumulated in Ireland, chiefly by thrifty farmers and tradesmen, are naturally destined to investments which involve neither speculation nor risk. Within a few years some large proprietors in the West, with the aid of the Midland Great Western Company, enabled by liberal guarantees a line of

a hundred miles to be constructed through a desolate region of bog where there had never been any kind of traffic. Within a year from the opening of the line it produced a dividend sufficient to cover the guarantees, and the price of a great part of the produce of the remoter districts was immediately doubled. In other parts of Ireland, counties and baronies have, in accordance with the resolutions of grand juries and presentment sessions, guaranteed for limited periods a dividend on the cost of railways sufficient to secure their construction. Lord CARLINGFORD's motion of Thursday last was suggested by an unfortunate decision of a Committee of the House of Lords against a proposed line from Sligo to Enniskillen, which was almost unanimously supported by the landowners of the districts concerned. The Committee further affirmed the doctrine that no guarantee should be sanctioned if it was opposed by any fraction of the ratepayers. Unless their inconsiderate and pedantic theory is repudiated by Parliament, railway extension is probably at an end in Ireland. The existing Companies are for the most part unwilling to encourage new projects, and capitalists will not risk their money without security. The enormous benefits which would be conferred by new lines would in many districts greatly outweigh any burden which might be imposed in the form of a guarantee. Grand juries and presentment sessions are perhaps imperfectly constituted as local Parliaments; but their members understand local interests, and they are extremely unlikely to indulge in extravagant enterprises.

IMPERIAL RESPONSIBILITIES.

IT is well that there should be a full discussion of the question as to the continuance of British rule at the Gold Coast, but it is impossible to imagine that there is any room for doubt as to what the decision will be. Mr. HANBURY has moved a Resolution expressing the opinion of the House of Commons that, "in the interests of civilization and commerce, it would not now be desirable to withdraw from the administration of the Gold Coast." No one, however, has ventured formally to propose the immediate abandonment of the Gold Coast, and much narrower considerations than those referred to in the Resolution would point to the same conclusion. We have just been engaged in a war with the King of ASHANTEE, which may perhaps have impressed him with a sense of our power, but which is not very likely to have inspired him with feelings of affection towards the native tribes, who, if they did little to help us, at any rate took our side in defiance of the Ashantees. It is obvious that the withdrawal of the English from the Gold Coast would at once bring down on those weak and helpless people the full weight of the KING's vengeance, and in that case the only result of the war would be to have exasperated the Ashantees, and exposed the tribes which were friendly to the English to the most fearful punishment. The latter would certainly have a right to protest against such monstrous and wanton cruelty. "If," they might say, "you had gone away without a war, we might have made terms for ourselves with the Ashantees; but you tempted us to go out against them, and now, with cowardly treachery, you leave us to bear the brunt of their fury, and our last state is worse than our first." The Treaty which was exacted from King COFFEE required him to renounce all authority over the Kings of Denkara, Assim, Akim, Adansi, and other allies of HER MAJESTY, formerly subject to the kingdom of Ashantee; and in the case of the Adansis, Sir G. WOLSELEY has himself stated that his reason for permitting them to unite with another tribe was to preserve them from massacre by the Ashantees. It is difficult to conceive a greater act of criminal folly than the recent campaign would be if it were to be followed up by an immediate retreat. It is not so much a question of the interests of civilization and commerce as of common humanity. It may be taken therefore as certain that, for the present at any rate, the Gold Coast will remain under English administration. Even Mr. HOLMS, who opposed Mr. HANBURY's motion, only went so far as to propose withdrawal, "as soon as the entanglements of the late war could be got rid of," which would seem to imply a prolongation of English rule for an indefinite period.

As to the actual state of the settlements, it is difficult to decide between the conflicting statements of the mover of the motion and those of his opponent. Mr. HANBURY

maintained that the position of the Gold Coast Settlements had greatly improved during the last eight or nine years. Human sacrifices had been put down among the natives, trade had been largely extended, and the revenue of the country developed. The recent war had revived the prestige of England, and would tend to discourage any further attacks. All this is contrary to the anticipations of an authoritative Committee of the House of Commons which inquired into the subject in 1865, and recommended the restriction of our settlements within their then limits, and the preparation of the natives for self-government with a view to our ultimate withdrawal from all parts of the coast, except perhaps Sierra Leone; and it may perhaps be doubted whether Mr. HANBURY has not been tempted to draw rather too rosy a picture of the prosperity of the settlements. Mr. HOLMS contended that trade, so far from increasing, was, if the statistics were rightly interpreted, declining; and that British taxpayers had spent 2,090,000*l.* in order that merchants might dispose of goods to the value of 2,300,000*l.* The annual expenditure had also risen from 10,000*l.* to some 54,000*l.* It is evident at least that the Dutch took a low view of the commercial value of Elmina, as they came down from 80,000*l.*, which they first demanded as the price of surrender, to the modest sum of 3,800*l.* As to the circumstance under which this addition to our settlements was obtained, official explanations have yet to be given. It may be assumed that there was a certain degree of obscurity as to the rights of the King of ASHANTEE, and that the English authorities thought they could trust to the representations of the Dutch Government. The important question, however, is rather as to the future than the past. It is clear that we cannot on the instant quit the Gold Coast, and in the meantime prudence would seem to suggest that an efficient government ought to be maintained. To put things on a temporary footing, as if the English were only watching for the moment to slip away, would be the strongest temptation which could be offered to the Ashantees to resume the offensive, in order to hasten our departure. On one point both Mr. HANBURY and Mr. HOLMS were agreed, and that was as to the mischief of frequent changes of Governors. Governor M'LEAN remained at his post for seventeen years, and it is admitted that he accomplished important results. Since then there have been no fewer than twenty-six different Governors. How many of them succumbed to the climate has not been stated, but it may be doubted whether the advantages of the office are sufficient to secure the continuous services of good men. Mr. HANBURY remarked that, without military support, it was impossible for merchants to force an inland trade; but it may be questioned whether it is a national duty that trade should be forced upon a reluctant population, and there is certainly something startling in hearing from the benches behind Mr. DISRAELI a proposal for suppressing the Protectionists of the East Coast of Africa by force of arms. Between pushing trade to this extent and altogether abandoning the country there is surely some safe and honourable middle course to be discovered.

Every question of this kind, with reference either to the continuance of an old settlement like that of the Gold Coast, or the acceptance of a new Sovereignty like that of Fiji, must necessarily be argued out on its own merits; but the decision which is come to will naturally depend in a considerable degree on the view which is taken of the external duties of a great nation like England. One set of politicians, whose influence has been rather declining in recent years, would make short work of all difficulties of this kind, by simply cutting adrift all existing colonies and dependencies, and resolving to contract no fresh relations of this kind. It is the aim of this school to reduce England to a position of selfish isolation, apart from and indifferent to the rest of the world, except in so far as it may offer profitable markets to English traders. The administrative area of the English Government would thus be reduced to the United Kingdom, and there can be no doubt that administration would thereby be greatly simplified, and that the country would be relieved from a great many troublesome and dangerous responsibilities. This is a perfectly consistent and in some respects plausible ideal. If the great object of existence is to secure domestic ease, and to shirk responsibility and all the worry and risks that attend it, then, no doubt, the proper course is to think only of the immediate comfort and convenience of people at home, and to shut our eyes to everything beyond. It costs at least ten

millions to keep up anything like a decent navy at present, but if we had only our own coasts to defend, a smaller and cheaper fleet might be found to answer the purpose. This policy would also get rid of a great many risks of collision with other Powers, which are, of course, only another name for expenditure. It is possible that in this way England might become a richer country than at present; at least, taxes would be less, and there are economical philanthropists who think that the happiness of a country depends on the smallness of its taxation, not on what it gets in return. It is evident, however, that England would cease to be a great country in the sense in which it has hitherto played its part. It would cease to be an active and propagating force, spreading its language, its ideas, its religion over the world, opening up new regions to the light of civilization and Christianity, making other nations take an interest in the objects which it has at heart, and in all sorts of ways carrying the rest of the human family along with it. Regarded as a mere commercial investment, it may be doubted whether colonies and settlements are worth all the trouble and money which are spent on them. Some of them have turned out better than others, but, on the whole, the mother-country gets very little out of them, at any rate directly. Yet, when Mr. HOLMS argues that the only question to be asked about the Gold Coast, for example, is how much it costs to keep up the settlement, and what amount of trade is done there, he may be reminded that this is only one side of the subject. Canada, New Zealand, Australia would assuredly not now be what they are if such considerations as these had uniformly governed English policy. Yet it will hardly be denied that it is a good thing for the world at large that these communities should exist in their present condition; and England not only has its share in this advantage, but a special share. The inhabitants of other countries are as free to trade with or settle in our colonies as we are ourselves; but however mixed the nationalities of the settlers, there can be no question that these new and thriving States are thoroughly English in their habits and ideas, and a genuine embodiment of English character. Nothing can be more certain than that, if England had been conducted from the safe business point of view, it would at this moment have been a very different country from what it is, and the world would in many ways have been different too. It would of course be absurd to say that a nation like ours is bound to take upon itself all at once the regeneration and management of the whole universe. It can only do what it can do, and it is bound to have some reasonable regard for its own immediate interests. Yet mere fireside comfort and economy may be prized too highly; and it is well, when questions of Imperial responsibility have to be determined, that a large and generous view should be taken of the mission of a great nation.

BUILDING AND HEALTH.

THE Metropolitan Buildings Bill has been referred to a Select Committee, and, considering its length, its complexity, and the number of interests which it affects, it is exceedingly uncertain how long it will remain under consideration, and in what shape it will ultimately become law. It would be well if the Government could be induced to employ the interval in framing a general Building Act which, though it should extend to the whole country and not be limited to London, need not for all that be very cumbrous. It is true that there are many sources of disease and discomfort which are peculiar to houses standing in crowded districts. In the country the air outside a house is commonly fairly pure, though occasionally a local confusion between the functions of a ditch and those of a sewer succeeds in poisoning even this. As a rule, however, the contribution of evil savours which every cottage makes to the surrounding atmosphere is too much diluted to be appreciably injurious. It is not as in London or Manchester where, in some of the worst parts of the town, the natural atmosphere seems to have retreated in despair of making itself felt, and to have yielded its place to a concentrated extract of all the bad smells which an undrained and unventilated court can give birth to. But as soon as the threshold is crossed, the parallel between houses in towns and houses in the country becomes very close. The chief causes of disease as regards dwelling-houses are two—bad air and bad water; and in the

first of these respects the country is no better off than the towns, while in the second it is usually worse off. Air may become bad either from want of sufficient provision for its renewal, or from the existence of a provision for its being renewed direct from the drains. Water may become bad either from improper storage or from the addition of poisonous matters. Of these four sources of mischief, the last is almost confined to the country, including under that head all towns and villages in which water is not supplied by any corporate agency. London water, for example, is often faulty, and the analyses of it which are published every month are as good as advertisements to the makers of filters. But London water is purity itself compared with the water drawn from many country wells, water which looks sparkling and tastes fresh, but which derives these very merits from the presence of poisonous gases. The other three evils are evenly distributed over the whole of England. The town garret and the country loft may be alike destitute of ventilation; the town sewer and the country cesspool may alike contribute their miasma to the air of the houses they drain; the town cistern and the country water-butt may alike besoil the water which they profess to store. If these four causes of ill-health could be removed, an immense stride would have been made towards rendering the sanitary condition of England really satisfactory. There would remain special evils generated by the pressure of a crowded population or by the practice of noxious trades, but in comparison with the evils generated by foul air and foul water in dwelling-houses they would be almost insignificant.

As regards all houses hereafter built it would not be difficult to guard against these evils; but as regards those already in existence the attempt to bring them up to the very modest standard here indicated might be surrounded by many difficulties. It is scarcely possible to make a clean sweep of all the houses which fall below a certain sanitary standard, because many of them are so built as to be altogether beyond the reach of improvement. By degrees more and more of them may be pulled down and the ground they occupy filled by houses of a better order; but until some plan of this kind can be devised they must be accepted as in many parts the only houses at the disposal of the poorer class of tenants. Again, as regards houses of a higher type, there are many which in a sanitary point of view are little better than those just mentioned. The miles of villas which surround London on all sides have been built in a great number of cases with a disregard for considerations of health which quite rivals the carelessness shown in building houses for the poor. This was strikingly shown in a cause tried a few weeks back at the Kingston Assizes. There is a suburb on the South-Western Railway called Worcester Park, at which a great deal of building has lately been going on. Either before it was begun, or whilst it was in progress, the builder seems to have cast his eye upon a little brook which runs through the estate, and in the end finds its way to the Thames, and it at once occurred to him that here was a system of drainage ready to hand. It was necessary to get refuse matters out of the houses, but so long as they could be poured into a running stream his conscience was satisfied. Unfortunately for the success of this arrangement the Kingston authorities objected to a method of sewerage which simply sent the refuse of Worcester Park to Kingston, and the Court made an order that the Worcester Park houses should be provided with cesspools. It was urged, with some show of reason, that this would be to create a nuisance in Worcester Park by way of abating one at Kingston. But the judge had only to determine what was due to the inhabitants of Kingston. The unfortunate inhabitants, if there be any, of Worcester Park were not formally before him. It was admitted that the soil of Worcester Park made it difficult to construct cesspools so as to ensure that there should be no communication between them and the drinking water, but it was not shown that it was impossible. Probably, like many other difficulties of the kind, it is a question of cost. But when once a cesspool is dug out and covered over, there is no obvious means of ascertaining in what manner the work has been done; and supposing that some of these houses should be furnished with cesspools which do not retain their contents, the fact may remain unknown until an epidemic of cholera or typhoid fever reveals on what sort of foundation Worcester Park is built.

This may be an extreme and unusual case, but some of the worst sanitary disasters come from causes which are

almost as widely distributed as the art of building itself. How this evil is to be dealt with as regards existing houses is a part of general sanitary legislation, and, as such, is surrounded with many difficulties. But as regards houses hereafter to be built there are no such difficulties. The very fact that, when once an unwholesome house has been built, it is often so difficult to change its character, is the best possible reason for taking care that no more unwholesome houses shall be built. What is wanted to meet the need is a short and intelligible Act of Parliament enacting that in future no houses shall be let or sold which have not been declared to be wholesome by a competent sanitary authority. What shall constitute wholesomeness might in the first instance be set out in the Act itself, and power might be reserved to the Local Government Board to make additions from time to time to the statutory requirements. In this way a series of sanitary standards would in time grow up resembling the standards of instruction fixed from time to time by the Education Department, and like them gradually increasing in stringency as the spread of sanitary knowledge made such an increase possible. In the Act itself it would be expedient only to lay down a few universally admitted rules—universally admitted, that is to say, by all persons who have not a vested interest in disputing them. There could be no great difficulty in defining what shall constitute the minimum of ventilation in a room, or in requiring that every pipe communicating either with a sewer or with a cesspool shall have some outlet to the external air, or that where cesspools and wells are both in use a minimum distance shall be maintained between them, and the walls of the cesspool shall be constructed so as not to allow any sewage matter to escape. If these three requirements were everywhere insisted on, the progress of sanitary education would be extraordinarily rapid, because the inhabitants of the houses built since the passing of the Act would be unmistakably healthier than the inhabitants of houses built before the passing of the Act. As it is, it is often difficult to convince people that such and such sanitary defects generate disease and shorten life, because they say, and say with truth, that the health of persons living in houses which command a high rent is not appreciably better than the health of persons living in houses which are constantly reported as destitute of the simplest sanitary requirements. The answer is that there are many houses commanding a high rent in which sanitary laws are as completely, though not as conspicuously, defied as in the hovels which make the text of a medical officer's report. If such a Building Act as has been suggested were enforced, without respect of persons or neighbourhoods, the superiority as regards healthiness of the houses to which it has been applied would soon remove all doubts as to the necessity of Parliamentary intervention.

COMPETITIVE EXAMINATION.

IT is too often humiliating to compare the actual working of any new piece of political machinery with the expectations entertained on first setting it in motion. Schemes devised on the best possible principles have an awkward way of developing the very tendencies for which we were least prepared. A recent article in the *Edinburgh Review* illustrates this familiar truth from the case of competitive examinations. Neither the good nor the evil effects anticipated at the first introduction of that system have been exactly realized. Competition has not filled the Civil Service with a class entirely superior to the old; nor, on the other hand, with worn-out, effeminate, narrow-chested, and spectacled students. But it has developed, and especially in the Indian Civil Service, which was to have been its great field of success, certain tendencies which demand serious consideration. That service, it is said, contains an increasing number of men at once less contented and, at least in certain important respects, less competent than their predecessors. Plans are being entertained for a serious modification of the system; and it is very generally held that the abolition of Haileybury in favour of the new plan was a decided mistake. The main stress of the case against the competitive system is well put by the *Edinburgh Reviewer*, though we do not quite accept some of his conclusions. Briefly stated, it comes to this, that the crammer has taken the place of the old school or college. It was expected twenty years ago that the ablest young men would be drawn to India from the Universities and the public schools. What has actually happened has been that, to a considerable extent, the Universities and schools have been beaten out of the field by private teachers. Nearly half the successful candidates in a recent examination, it is said, came from one private institution, and nearly half the remainder from another. Instead, therefore, of securing a series of first-class men for the Government of India,

we have only a set of lads trained by some Mr. Smith or Jones, who is skilled in the art of circumventing examiners. The great stimulus which was to have been given to the existing educational bodies has been wanting, and the practical consequence has rather been that a certain number of promising pupils have been withdrawn from their influence. At first sight this will doubtless be admitted to be an evil; but, to avoid exaggeration or misstatement, it is necessary to consider more precisely in what the evil exists.

Cramming has long been a practice of evil repute. It is generally understood to mean the filling of the youthful mind with a mass of imperfectly assimilated knowledge which produces no permanent effect. A distinguished Professor recently suggested that when lads presented themselves for examination they should be sent to sea without books, pens, or ink, for six months, and examined on their return. Such a system would leave time for the evaporation of all that superficial knowledge which is acquired exclusively for immediate consumption. It would, in fact, avert the evils characteristic of the grosser forms of cramming; but we fear that it would not be effective against a more subtle mischief. It does not, in fact, seem to be true that the cramming practised for the Indian examination is of this inartistic kind. In answer to the complaints of the *Edinburgh Reviewer* that the crammers encourage a superficial knowledge of many subjects instead of a thorough knowledge of one, the most successful member of the profession wrote a sufficiently pertinent letter to the *Times*. According to him, success is generally attained by a thorough drilling in a small number of subjects. "Quality, not quantity," he says, is a phrase constantly in his mouth; and some of his most successful pupils had taken up a very small number of subjects. We could find some fault with this statement; but we are quite ready to believe that, as a matter of fact, cramming as practised by the best teachers does imply much thorough study; and that, for example, the mathematical knowledge of a candidate for the Indian examinations is the same in kind, if not in degree, with that of a candidate for honours at Cambridge. It includes a real knowledge of certain subjects, not a mere learning by heart of a few books. The "crammer" in question—if we may use the word without offence—proceeded to say that the success of himself and his brethren was simply due to the thoroughness of their work. They sell a good article, and therefore secure customers. They depend entirely upon their work, instead of having endowments to fall back upon, and therefore can compete successfully with University teachers, who are apt to be idle because independent. In fact, the crammer merely does in London what a successful "coach" used to do at the Universities. We believe that at the present day a distinguished private tutor occupies a position in regard to the Mathematical Tripos not unlike that which the crammer occupies in regard to the Indian examinations. In each case, the prestige which has been acquired may lead young men to attach an exaggerated value to their extra-official teaching; but at any rate the prestige was won and is maintained by thorough and conscientious labour.

But, admitting that the crammer does his work well, it does not follow that the education which he imparts is really all that could be desired. He preaches, it may be, "quality, not quantity," but there is another lesson which he is bound to impress upon his pupils—namely, to read what "pays." Success in an examination, not a thorough intellectual and moral training, is necessarily his ultimate aim; and the pursuit of one of these purposes may imply a divergence from the other. This is, in fact, the vital weakness of the competitive system, and it is easy to see how it works. The *Edinburgh Reviewer*, for example, says that concentration rather than diffusion of intellect should be the rule for education. We cannot accept his statement without serious modification. Suppose, for example, that an appointment to India was obtainable simply by mathematical excellence. It would then be worth while for a boy, as soon as he showed decided mathematical talent, to devote himself exclusively to mathematics, and the natural consequence would be that several years of his life would be devoted to what is indeed an admirable branch of intellectual gymnastics, but a very poor training when taken by itself. A youth of twenty-one, devoid of all other culture and endowed with an exceptional power for the manipulation of abstract symbols, would be about as poorly prepared for a share in the government of a great Empire as any one could be who was not an absolute fool. In short, the narrowing tendency of an education directed exclusively to secure success in examinations is often more marked and more pernicious than its tendency to produce superficiality. An ideal scheme of education would include a general cultivation of all the faculties, together with a careful development of any special aptitudes. A scheme guided by examinations leaves these considerations altogether out of account. If it does not tend to fill the Indian service with a number of smart smatterers in universal knowledge, it tends to fill it with a number of specialists, and of specialists whose knowledge has no reference to their duties. A judicious teacher would endeavour to supplement the knowledge of his mathematician by giving him some wider or more humanizing culture. The crammer will ask him, Can you learn Latin and Greek enough to get the minimum of marks? If not, drop the subjects altogether. If you can, be careful above all things not to allow them to distract you from the subjects on which you really rely. The two objects of getting the best possible training, and of getting as many marks as possible, can

only coincide by accident; and a system which leaves the former altogether out of account will be necessarily unsatisfactory.

And this suggests one secret of the crammer's power of competing with the Universities and schools which is not quite so creditable as the secret of thorough teaching. He has undoubtedly the advantage of not being burdened, like schoolmasters and college tutors, with a mass of utter idleness. Everybody who comes to him wants to learn. No distractions are provided. The youth who is under his hands probably takes lodgings in London, lives by himself, and devotes himself for a couple of years exclusively to his crammer. Such a system removes many difficulties. There is no discipline to be enforced; there are no boat-clubs to tempt lads to waste their time; there are no social amusements or debating societies; and, in fact, nothing of that which constitutes a very essential part of University training, though, it must be admitted, a part very liable to be abused. A certain proportion of the best boys from our public schools and elsewhere, instead of going through a University career and being exposed to all the multifarious influences which it implies, are simply put into pens to be fatted for examination. Granting that the food supplied to them is sufficiently solid, and that they are not tempted to waste their time on mere frivolities; and granting that such a plan is conducive to the production of mark-making animals, still it must be confessed that it implies a wretched system of education. We fully agree with the *Reviewer* that this is not the way to bring up the members of the governing body of our great dependency. Under the old system, the youths at Haileybury were frequently incompetent and ignorant enough; but at any rate the effect of bringing them together was to encourage that corporate spirit which seems to be rapidly declining under the present arrangements. The objection made when the competitive plan was started, that it would produce awkward recluses instead of men of the world, had after all something in it. The stimulus added to intellectual cultivation was in itself narrow, and was not combined with any stimulus to the general educational system. The inventors of the new plan hoped, as we have said, to draw the most promising material from our Universities. They hoped that the offer of great prizes would invigorate the whole education of the country as well as attract a certain number of clever lads. But, as is too often the case in our fragmentary methods of reform, this part of the system broke down. The effect has been not to send a fuller stream through the old channels, but to open a little side channel of education, which is allowed to regulate itself. The object was, or should have been, to obtain men of the widest and most thorough cultivation that the country could supply. The actual result has been to set up a demand for the products of a new kind of industry which, if it is not fairly open to all the popular objections to learning, certainly sets up a very false and narrow standard of excellence. The obvious remedy suggested by the *Reviewer* is to establish a new Indian college which should do in a better way what was formerly done by Haileybury. The successful candidates, he thinks, should be brought together at Oxford or Cambridge, where they would be exposed to the influences of the best system of education which the country supplies. It would be premature to discuss a scheme of this kind before any definite proposal has been worked out. Many difficulties might easily be suggested. The *Reviewer* does not, for example, propose to touch the preliminary education at all, though the evils of the present plan are in great measure those which are inseparable from the mode in which candidates are prepared. No doubt, moreover, the jealousies of different Universities would cause obstacles upon which we must not dwell at present. We agree, however, that some such scheme would at least tend to remedy the evils which result from filling the ranks of the service with a number of men who have had no common system of training, and no tie of corporate feeling except such as is supplied by suffering at the hands of crammers.

PROSELYTISM IN RUSSIA.

A LONG extract from the *Grashdanine* of St. Petersburg, said to represent "the highest and most influential circles at Court," was printed the other day in the letter of the *Times* Correspondent at Berlin. It gives a curious account of the preaching of the Gospel by the "modern English apostle," Lord Radstock, who has, it seems, for the present transferred his spiritual ministrations from Exeter Hall to the Russian capital, where he has established the same sort of reputation as "apostle of the Genteels" which preachers of a very different creed enjoy nearer home. It is no new thing indeed for the fair sex to be gifted with itching ears, and the truths of the Gospel, whether according to Rome or to Geneva, are apt to come with peculiar persuasiveness from aristocratic lips. Such considerations would go a good way to explain what may be after all, as the *Grashdanine* supposes, a merely ephemeral success. There are however other causes, not far to seek, which may help to explain the religious revivalism at St. Petersburg. Lord Radstock is not the first missionary, nor is his the only faith, that has greatly troubled the somewhat stagnant waters of Eastern Orthodoxy. And the very organ which so severely condemns the "erratic behaviour of these enlightened ladies" supplies hints which to those who have any acquaintance with the Russian Church are sufficiently significant. But it will be only fair in the first place to hear what the *Grashdanine* has to say about the matter. After deplored the

Protestant tendencies which have displayed themselves in some villages of Southern Russia, and the formation of a Protestant Propaganda at Berlin, the report proceeds as follows; the particular point being, it will be observed, that, unlike the early days of Christianity, it is only to neophytes of unimpeachably blue blood that the Gospel is in this case preached:—

Worse than this, there is Countess M., a Russian Orthodox lady, and the mother of four children, who the other day told Lord Radstock that she had only learnt to love Christ from his exposition of the Anglican doctrine; that the Greek Church was so cold and stiff, and that she only now knew what it was to be really a Christian. Princess G., another Russian Orthodox lady, and the mother of two children, after attending Lord Radstock's Bible class, has been heard to exclaim, "I only now know what the religion of Christ really is. It is Protestantism!" "Yes," added another Orthodox lady—Princess P.—"Protestantism is the only religion I ever understood. It is based upon love, not upon rite and ceremony, as is ours." "My dear lord, O pray teach me how to love Christ. Tell me, my dear Lord Radstock, how to make the necessary and proper distinction between the love I feel for my husband and the love I owe to Christ." These words have recently fallen from the lips of Princess D., likewise an Orthodox lady and the mother of four children. The above few authentic utterances will give the reader an idea of the religious condition of St. Petersburg society early in the year 1874. Balls are forgotten, and fine dresses discarded, the fair owners having taken to loving Christ and receiving religious instruction from a modern English apostle.

There is even, we are told, a predilection for Protestantism among the male portion of "our fashionable society." But it is to Countesses and Princesses that Lord Radstock's teaching chiefly commands itself. He evidently does not think much of "the Holy Eastern Church," for the object of his visit to St. Petersburg is expressly stated to be "to convert its inhabitants to Christianity." Since his arrival in the Russian capital he has received ten or twelve invitations daily to discourse "in aristocratic saloons," and has also been preaching in the American Church both in French and English. And wherever he appears, in public or private, he is beset by ladies who "entreat him to teach them how to love Jesus." The special assemblies—we had almost said *seances*—held for this purpose are thus described by an eye-witness:—

At an early hour the room is filled to overflowing with princesses and countesses. They are all clad in black or gray, are accompanied by their little children, and hunger and thirst after the spiritual food they have come to receive. Lord Radstock first kneels down with his back to the assembly, entreating Christ to inspire him with fitting words. Then, rising and turning round, he says, "Let us pray," an injunction which is immediately obeyed by all present. After this he opens the Bible, reading the first text upon which his eye happens to fall, and commenting upon it in eloquent and impressive language. The ladies are gradually excited to the highest pitch of religious enthusiasm. As they sit weeping before him, they resemble so many heathen women admitted to the first knowledge of Christ by the powerful teaching of St. Paul. The close of the discourse is marked by loud sobs. The fair devotees rise from their seats, and crowding round the evangelist lord, thank him in passionate terms for showing them the way of salvation, and directing them and their children into the paths of peace. Every now and then it happens that one of the children present, startled by the contrast between the language of Lord Radstock and that of the Russian clergy, asks his mother whether it is necessary to attend the teachings of the Orthodox pastors at all, after this attractive experience of the foreigner's religion. "Ah," she says, "you had better look to the dear lord for your future religious instruction." Such scenes are being enacted daily before our eyes.

The writer goes on to criticize the conduct of these Countesses and Princesses in no very complimentary terms. They would not, he thinks, be by any means ready to listen to the equally sincere and pious teaching of a poor unpretending Russian priest in shabby clothes, or even to admit him into their houses. They understand nothing whatever of the doctrine to which they listen so eagerly. They had no idea the day before Lord Radstock's arrival that they were "hungering and thirsting after Christ," and they will have forgotten all about him and his preachers a fortnight after he is gone. In short, they have simply transferred to this new apostle the enthusiasm they not long ago exhibited for Mr. Home, the Spiritualist. But what the writer thinks much more serious is that their conduct proves their ignorance of Orthodox doctrine and their open want of sympathy with their own Church. "If they were really Russian Orthodox ladies, they would not ask Lord Radstock to teach them his religion, but simply tell him that they are ready to co-operate with him in contributing to the approximation of the two Churches." After some comments on Lord Radstock's peculiar methods of propagandism, the writer again reverts to the contrast between him and the "poor, destitute, common Russian pope." These deserters, he says, will defend their apostasy by the old excuse that there are no powerful preachers among their own clergy, who are in fact only "coarse ignoramuses and vulgar drunkards." And he concludes by urging the clergy of St. Petersburg to ascend the pulpit, and "speak loud enough to be heard even beyond the walls of the sacred edifices," on behalf of the doctrines and rites of "a Church founded by Christ Himself, and destined to endure for ever, whereas Lord Radstock's Church ceases to exist when he breathes his last." How far the Russian clergy may be willing or competent to profit by this advice we cannot undertake to say, but of its being far from superfluous there can be little doubt. It is perfectly true that the ignorance and vulgarity of the Russian "popes"—not to dwell here on graver charges—proves nothing against the doctrines they profess or the authority of their Church. But the female mind is not apt to be logical, and even laity of the sterner sex, and far removed from the refinements of aristocratic society, do not always take pains to distinguish accurately between the personal demerits of their pastors and the merits of their creed. The "old excuse for apostasy" is indeed a very old one in Russia, and, after making full allowance for exaggeration and calumny, it

is impossible to doubt that it rests on a solid basis of fact. The difficulty of gaining thoroughly trustworthy information on the subject arises from our informants being usually either Russian ecclesiastics, who naturally paint things in a rosy hue, or Latin missionaries who are likely to see the worst side of the rival communion and to take the most unfavourable view of what they do see. But still the general ignorance, and we fear it must be added the very prevalent insobriety, of the Russian priesthood, are patent facts, and not difficult to account for. From its social and geographical position no Church has been as yet so little influenced by the advancing wave of modern culture; and there is moreover a special ground in its peculiar constitution for that sharp line of demarcation between the higher and lower ranks of the ministry which distinguishes it from all other episcopal communions. The compulsory marriage of the parochial clergy—for they are as strictly bound to marry before ordination as the Latin clergy are to remain single—makes it impossible for them ever to rise to the episcopate. The necessary consequence of this is that the bishops, who are bound to be celibates, are invariably taken from the religious orders, and therefore have no common antecedents or common sympathies with their diocesan clergy, whom they are apt to look down upon socially and intellectually, and to govern at best with formal strictness, if not with harshness and injustice. It is not easy to see how, under the existing system, it could be otherwise.

What is chiefly remarkable about Lord Radstock's Russian apostolate is that it should be so quietly permitted; and we are inclined from this to suspect that the Government take much the same view of the movement as the *Grashdanine*, regarding it as a mere passing phase of fashionable excitement. Certainly Russia has not formerly been tolerant of assaults on the established faith, and, if we are not mistaken, apostasy from the Orthodox Church is still an offence punishable with banishment. The danger has not indeed usually come from the side of Protestantism. For centuries past the Popes have laboured assiduously to gain footing in Russia, and their overtures have been sternly repulsed by successive Czars or put aside with cold and inflexible politeness. Catharine II. indeed, with a kind of cynical generosity, like Frederick II. of Prussia, maintained the Jesuits in her dominions after their suppression by the Holy See, and for forty years under shelter of Russia they successfully defied the edicts of Rome till Pius VII. restored the Order in 1814. But they were strictly enjoined to confine their services to their co-religionists, and to abstain from all attempts to make converts from the Orthodox Church. It was to their persistent, though at first cautious and secret, evasion of this injunction that they owed their final expulsion from the country in 1820. At the beginning of this century the Russian Jesuits were under the generalship of one of the ablest men their order ever produced, Father Gruber. In direct contravention of the law they admitted into their schools children of other confessions, and even opened a *pension* for the sons of the native nobility, many of whom were converted by them. White Russia was however the main centre of their operations. They had a powerful patron in the famous Count Joseph de Maistre, who then represented Sardinia at the Court of St. Petersburg, and who through his friend Prince Galitzin, the Minister of Public Instruction, could always gain the ear of the Czar. His wife, the Princess Galitzin, became a convert in 1807, but took the precaution of being received into the Latin Church in Germany; about the same time the Princess Dolgorouky was received in Holland, and Prince Odowksi at St. Petersburg. But a greater commotion was caused by the conversion of the wife of Count Rostopchin, Governor-General of Moscow. She was privately received by her Jesuit confessor, who was very angry with her—or, as he expressed it, "quite stupefied at her thoughtless conduct"—when, contrary to his injunctions, she communicated the secret to her husband. In 1816 Count de Maistre was able to say:—"Conversions to our faith are very rapid, and strike one as much by the number of the converts as by their social rank. It is truly an admirable sight, for—and here one is strongly reminded of Lord Radstock's fair disciples—"the conversions are chiefly among the highest orders of society." At last matters were brought to a crisis by the discovery that Prince Alexander Galitzin, son of the Minister of Instruction, had been privately received by the Jesuits. The Emperor (Alexander I.) was very indignant, and in December, 1815, appeared an Imperial ukase denouncing their practices in no very gentle terms, and banishing them from the capital. De Maistre was accused by the Emperor, not without reason, of having a hand in some of these important conversions, and he soon afterwards left St. Petersburg. Finally, in March 1820, a fresh ukase was issued banishing the Jesuit Order from Russia altogether, and forbidding them under any pretext whatsoever to re-enter the Empire. The restriction, which has since then been adopted by Catholic States such as Bavaria, has never been removed. But the principle, or at least the practice, of toleration has advanced so rapidly during the last half century that it might be difficult even for the Russian Government to enforce the prohibition of religious conversions in the present day with the same stringency as of old. We must confess, however, that, with every respect for the zeal and sincerity of Lord Radstock, we should be a good deal surprised to learn that he had achieved even such a limited measure of success as fell to the lot of the Jesuit missionaries who preceded him. If the *Grashdanine* is at all accurate in its description of those interesting neophytes who experience a kind of Wesleyan conversion in the morning, and "attend a ball the same evening with the com-

fortable consciousness of being saved, and that there is no further need of going to church or receiving the Sacraments," it is hardly uncharitable to surmise that such "ecstatic states" are not likely to be very permanent. At the same time, as it is always easier to suggest doubts than to satisfy them, the Orthodox belief of some of the rising generation may not improbably be shaken without their having any other belief in particular to put in its place. How far such a change may be likely to promote their moral and spiritual welfare need not be discussed here, but it would hardly perhaps realize Lord Radstock's professed aim of converting the inhabitants of Russia to Christianity.

A PENNY SHOW.

LONDON now presents many attractions to visitors, and it has at least one advantage which should recommend it to those who study to combine pleasure and economy. There is probably no other city where you can see so good a show for so absurdly small a charge. A devotee of cheap and simple enjoyments may find his ideal realized by an afternoon visit to Hyde Park. The entertainment which is there provided is accessible to every one and extremely inexpensive. The Park is open to all, and a stranger has only to walk in and make himself at home. For a penny he gets the use of a comfortable seat from which to view one of the most wonderful spectacles in the world, or, if luxuriously inclined, another penny will enable him to riot in the extravagance of an arm-chair. For several hours a stream of carriages flows up and down in front of him. All the greatest and grandest people in town come out in handsome carriages to contribute to his diversion, and put on their best clothes for the occasion. The historian of the travels of the Shah of Persia has not yet completed the great work upon which he has been engaged since his return to his own country with his illustrious master, but the following passage has obtained circulation in an enterprising journal of Teheran, which has since been suppressed for its impudent violation of State secrets. "In this country," says the learned scribe, speaking of England, "the Government does not consider it part of its duty to provide for the amusement of the people by keeping up opera-houses and theatres at great expense, as is the fashion in some other European countries, but the object is fully attained by the voluntary efforts of private benevolence. A peculiar kind of dramatic performance is given during several months of the year in one of the Royal palaces at Westminster, which is set apart for the purpose. The performers are divided into two companies, each of which has a theatre of its own. The first is composed of the nobles, and the other of patriotic citizens who are willing to devote themselves to the recreation of their fellow-countrymen. The performances take place on several nights a week during the season, and consist of recitations, which are sometimes accompanied by strange cries, and sometimes by a general humming, as if of many bees. None of these performers are paid; on the contrary, they not only give their time and services for nothing, but those who are not nobles have to spend a great deal of money in getting enrolled in the corps. Yet there are always a great many wanting to get in. Nothing indeed is more wonderful in this country than the way in which persons of rank and wealth are not only willing, but eager, to sacrifice their private ease and comfort in order to amuse the multitude. Another instance of this may be given. All persons having incomes of upwards of £2,000 a year are expected, when resident in the capital, to appear daily in the principal park at certain fixed hours, and to exhibit their chariots, horses, servants, and gayest dresses, so that poorer persons, who can have none of these fine things for themselves, may enjoy the sight of them. It is clear that the pleasure of such things must be in looking at, and not in having, them. They are in fact a great expense and trouble to the possessors, and the parade in public every afternoon is in itself a severe infliction. The grandees have to drive very slowly, so that they may be well seen, and are stopped every few minutes by policemen and compelled to stand still for the more perfect gratification of public curiosity. Thus, by a wise rule, the accumulation of wealth in the hands of the minority is made to minister to the contentment of the people, who have the pleasure of beholding the splendour of wealth while at the same time they are taught to commiserate the possessors who have to pay the penalty of being bound to exhibit it. The sadness on the faces of the people in carriages is accounted for by the depressing nature of the ordeal which they have to go through; yet it should be said that they perform the penance, if not cheerfully, yet dutifully; and even many persons whose incomes do not bring them within the regulation seize the opportunity of making martyrs of themselves in this way. The Royal Family even are not exempted from the obligation of this national custom, and gratify the people by setting a good example to the aristocracy. The only expense the Government is put to for these exhibitions is in providing the Park, as in the other case it provides the theatre. No allowance is made to the performers out of the public funds. It is a strange proof of the perversity of human nature that objection should be taken to the use of the Park in this way by some of the very people for whose amusement the show is provided. Yet one Vernon Harcourt, who called himself 'friend of the roughs,' not long since complained of it. If the poor people in carriages had cried out, it would have been more natural."

It is scarcely necessary to point out the errors into which the writer has fallen; but there can be no doubt that he has hit off

the aspect under which this strange ceremony must necessarily present itself to the mind of an intelligent stranger. It is impossible for anybody not in the secret to conjecture that the people who daily drive up and down the same little strip of the Park derive any personal gratification from the exercise; and it is naturally assumed that it must be an obligation imposed, if not by law, at least by some custom with the force of law, or by a deep sense of religion. The procession has certainly all the solemnity of a function. The wearisome monotony of the scene; the same dusty trees, and dirty backs of houses, and grimy, tumble-down barracks, which have to be passed and repassed half-a-dozen or a dozen times in the course of daily duty; the funeral slowness of the pace, the jerky halts, the general jostle and overcrowding, everybody's pole in the back of somebody else's carriage—all help to keep up the idea of an imposed penance. Indeed the downcast resignation of the victims, and the way in which they are ordered about by the police, might almost suggest the notion of a very superior sort of convicts having their penal servitude within doors varied by a regulation airing under the charge of gaolers on horseback. Mr. Orton and his friends at Millbank no doubt take their daily round in the grey stone-flagged yard, one behind another, in dull, sleepy trot, in much the same spirit and with much the same mien. The police is of course an excellent force in its way, but it is perhaps employed a little too indiscriminately. On the day of the Prince of Wales's thanksgiving the inhabitants of London were startled and scandalized by seeing the Archbishop of Canterbury ignominiously taken to St. Paul's in the custody of a mounted policeman. It appears that the working classes resent the intrusion of the police into the parks which they chiefly frequent; but it may perhaps be said that, if the upper classes choose to go about in a mob, they must expect to be treated like other mobs. Still it might be worth while to give the mounted constables a little more drill in the *suaviter in modo*. In itself a drive is of course a very pleasant thing, but it might be supposed that people who had pleasure in view would surely like to drive a little faster, and with fewer interruptions, and that they would occasionally vary the scene, if it were only by going round the Serpentine, instead of crawling dismaly to and fro between Apsley House and the barracks, the poorest part of the Park. London is surrounded on almost every side by a magnificent series of heaths and commons. Hardly any other great city has such an environment of picturesque and varied scenery; and yet we find all these wealthy people, who could go where they liked, deliberately wasting a whole season of bright summer afternoons creeping up and down the same stupid strip of roadway.

As there is no law to compel anybody to drive in the Park, it must be supposed that those who do so have some object in view, and that object can hardly be their own pleasure. The motive, we suspect, must be sought in an overpowering sense of social duty, or perhaps in a morbid desire for social distinction. It is not everybody whose dinners are in the *Morning Post* or who can command tickets for Lady Blank's receptions. But anybody who likes can drive in the Park, and can get mixed up with great people, if only in a crowd and under the charge of the police. The only condition is that the carriage must be a private carriage, or must look like a private carriage, but there is no restriction as to style; and occasionally an aspiring butcher or greengrocer may be seen—perhaps an omen of the future—jogging along with his missus and blooming family, in the spring-cart hitherto reserved for Sunday jaunts to rustic tap-rooms. At present, however, the small shopkeeper is content with his congenial obscurity. It is the large dealers who swamp the Ride. The statistics of the increase of the national wealth by leaps and bounds at first sight inspire one with a natural feeling of elation, but there is also a sad side to the picture. All this prosperity puts large fortunes into the pockets of people who do not know what on earth to do with it, and to whom, on account of the vain ambition it excites, it is only a misery and a snare. They were happy and honoured in their local sphere, but successful trade drifts them to town. They become eager for admission into society, but society except in its shady fringes is not to be taken by storm. The block in the Park represents the struggle for social existence. Anybody with a carriage can at least make a beginning there. And so the crush continues and the cry is still they come. Already carriages are two or three lines deep on each side, and if things go on at the present rate, they will have to go over each other's heads. As it is, the scene has certainly attractions for poor philosophers on penny chairs. The fine horses, with flashing harness, the handsome carriages, the rainbow colours of the dresses, make up a brilliant show. If the grand people did not appear, as the police reports say, to feel their position so acutely, the spectacle would certainly be more cheerful; but, on the other hand, pity for the unfortunate persons whose social position or ambition doomed them to this daily penance suggests contentment with a humble lot. It is not an indecent exposure of wealth so much as a parade of the misery which wealth entails. There is, however, a limit to human endurance, and it is possible that in course of time, as the crowd and crush increase, and soapboilers are in turn poled by small coal-dealers and costermongers, the fashion will come in of sending carriages empty to the Park, as is already done in the case of funerals. The clothes and bonnets could be exhibited on lay figures. In some cases the clothes would thus perhaps have greater justice done to them.

THE NEW SWISS CONSTITUTION.

EVERY one who has thought of such matters at all must have known some time back that the revised Swiss Constitution was accepted by a large majority both of the people and of the Cantons at the voting of April 19th. But the full force of the vote can be understood only by going through the returns from the several Cantons and the several parts of the Cantons, which have been somewhat slow in coming in. We have, first of all, the main fact that, while the scheme of revision in 1872 was rejected by a large majority of the Cantons and by a narrow majority of the people, the scheme of 1874 is carried by a large majority of the Cantons and by an overwhelming majority of the people. We see also that several Cantons have changed sides, and especially one large and one small, Vaud and Appenzell-ausser-rhoden. The majority on the popular vote was so small in 1872, a majority of 5,411 among the 516,681 votes given, that a reversal of the vote of Appenzell-ausser-rhoden—if the Yeas in that one small Canton had been Nays and the Nays Yeas—would have turned the scale; much more would the vote of Vaud. In 1872 Appenzell-ausser-rhoden had 8,921 Nays to 3,804 Yeas; now it has 9,858 Yeas to 2,040 Nays. In 1872 Vaud had 51,465 Nays to 3,318 Yeas; now it has 25,692 Yeas to 18,076 Nays. The conversion of the smaller Canton is more decided than that of the larger, but both are remarkable. And these are both Cantons which have a character of their own; Vaud is the greatest of the Protestant Romance Cantons; Appenzell-ausser-rhoden stands alone among the small German Cantons of the East in being at once Protestant and manufacturing. Glarus, otherwise resembling it, is much divided in religion. Glarus however has only repeated its former vote of Yea, while Appenzell-ausser-rhoden has turned right round. With Vaud, the other Protestant Romance Cantons of Geneva and Neufchâtel have also changed from Nay to Yea, and Graubünden, with its mixture of religion and languages, has made the same change also. On the other hand, no Canton which in 1872 voted Yea has voted Nay in 1874. Nor are the majorities very widely different from what they were then. In Zürich, where the Yeas had before a very large majority, they now have an overwhelming one; in Freiburg, on the other hand, the former large majority of Nays is now larger still; but it is only in Ticino that there seems to have been any large change of opinion in a negative direction. This Canton, which rejected the scheme of 1872 by the not very decisive majority of 6,902 to 5,871, now rejects it by 12,200 to 6,130; it is plain then that in Ticino several thousand people who did not vote at all in 1872 have voted Nay in 1874. St. Gallen, which in 1872 accepted revision by a mere shave, 22,534 to 22,505, has now a majority of nearly 7,000 in its favour. The other Cantons remain much as they were. The three primitive Cantons, with Wallis and Appenzell-inner-rhoden, are as set against change as ever, while the majority of Nays is only slightly lessened in Zug, and rather more so in Luzern. Solothurn remains, as before, the only decidedly Catholic Canton which is strongly in favour of change.

The inference from all this is that, as we hinted when speaking of these matters in former articles, the accidental union of quite distinct, and even otherwise hostile, parties which threw out the scheme of 1872 has now been dissolved. In 1872 Uri, Vaud, and Appenzell-ausser-rhoden pulled together; now Uri stays where it was, while Vaud and Appenzell-ausser-rhoden have gone over to the other side. That is to say, the Romance element which feared being swallowed up by a German majority is now satisfied; the small Canton which feared being swallowed up by the large ones is now satisfied; but the strongly Catholic Cantons which, whatever else they feared, feared mainly for their religion, are now as little satisfied as ever. Nor is this wonderful, for the changes between the two schemes are all made to meet the objections both of the Romance Cantons and of the small Cantons as such. Nothing has been done to meet the objections of the purely Catholic party; indeed the scheme of 1874 has been made distinctly more offensive to them than the scheme of 1872 was. The accidental alliance has therefore fallen asunder; the parties to which concessions have been made have accepted those concessions as a fair compromise, but the party to which no concessions have been made, but to which the new proposals were studiously made more distasteful than the old ones, naturally remains more hostile than ever.

It is not easy to tell whether much difference would have been made if, as we have always maintained to be the only fair course, the proposals on different subjects had been voted on separately, instead of being all put to a single vote of Yea or Nay. As it was, the zealous Catholic who thought his religion was in danger was constrained to vote against various measures on other subjects which he might possibly have voted for if they had been put by themselves. So the man who was bent on judicial, military, or strictly constitutional changes, could carry them only by also voting for an ecclesiastical legislation which, if Catholic, he might think galling to his own religion, and which, if Protestant, it is just possible that he might think unfair to the religion of his neighbour. Or again, among the provisions which do not deal with ecclesiastical matters, a man who was anxious to give a better position to the Federal judiciary could do so only by voting for the *Referendum* in Federal legislation, for which he may have had no mind. One can well believe that, if the different proposals had been put, as the phrase is, *artikelweise*, instead of *in globo*, some parts of the scheme might have been carried and others thrown out. But the authors of the revision have been wise in their generation; they have played

for a high stake, and they have won, and there can be little doubt that in the present form it has been on the ecclesiastical question far more than on any other that the voting has now turned. The struggle has been one phase of the great struggle which is going on in so many places at once. The Ghibelins have won another victory; for the experience of Pisa and Siena teaches us that we may speak of Ghibelins in a commonwealth, and there is no place where we should more naturally look for Guelfs than at Altdorf. And here, as everywhere else where the same struggle is raging, we are met with the same difficulties, with the same arguments on opposite sides, which make us fully understand the course taken by both parties, but which hinder us from fully sympathizing with either. We can fully understand how the recent attitude of the Roman Church, with its new dogmas and all the rest of its late doings, has called forth against itself a thoroughly hostile spirit in every country where its pretensions are at all prominent, or can with any probability be looked on as dangerous. The Romanism of the present day is something quite different from the Romanism with which men have had to deal at any earlier time. When, by an analogy which is so tempting that there is no resisting it, we call up again the old familiar names of Guelfs and Ghibelins, we must remember the wide difference between the struggle in those days and the struggle in these. The same distinction comes in which we pointed out when we were speaking of the dislike which modern Roman Catholics have to large portions of medieval literature. The old writers could freely expose the corruptions of the Church in their days, because there were no heretics looking on. They could write, without harm to their orthodoxy, what the modern Roman Catholic, living in a wilderness of heresy, thinks it dangerous for the youth of his communion to read. So it is with the old struggles between the ecclesiastical and civil powers. They were, after all, domestic quarrels; they were disputes within a single religious communion; however godless or sacrilegious this or that King might be, he was still an undutiful son, and not a mere stranger. Henry the Fourth, and even Frederick the Second, would have indignantly denied any charge of heterodox belief. Or even if an Emperor like Frederick could be personally charged with heresy, he was a heretic all by himself; he was not a member and a chief of an heretical communion. The struggle of the one true Church against heretical powers, whether those powers take the form of a Protestant Emperor or a Protestant canton, is something quite different from the struggles of the old time. The Pope and the Emperor might dispute as to the limits of their respective authority; but the Emperor had no wish wholly to get rid of the Pope, nor had the Pope any wish wholly to get rid of the Emperor. As things are now, each side may, as matter either of principle or of expediency, be civil and tolerant to the other; but each side in its heart would be better pleased if the other were not there at all. For the true Church to have to submit to laws passed by an heretical Legislature is in some respects more, and in some respects less, galling than to have to submit to the same laws if passed by an orthodox Legislature. But at all events the two cases are quite different. The Popes still keep up a power of mailing which is by no means contemptible; still Pius the Ninth does not rail so fiercely at the Emperor William as Hildebrand railed at Henry the Fourth. The difference is of course the difference between the undutiful son and the stranger. But the war with the stranger is, after all, the more deadly. The defenders of the new Swiss legislation refer with pride to the fact that the very earliest piece of Federal legislation was a law to restrain the ecclesiastical power, namely the famous *Pfaffenbrief* of 1370. But then that was the act of a body all whose members belonged to one communion. Orthodox Zürich and orthodox Uri might agree to act in common to bridle their respective priests, but it is quite another thing when orthodox Uri is called on to bridle its priests at the bidding of heretical Zürich. We can quite understand how a Protestant majority, looking at the Roman Church, above all in the form which it has lately taken, as a thing which it would gladly get rid of if the received principles of toleration would let it, may be tempted to go as near to the edge of persecution as decency would allow. We can also understand how a Catholic body may be inclined to fight to the death against laws forced upon it by a Protestant majority, while, if there were no such thing as a Protestant in Europe, it might very likely be inclined to enact the same laws for itself.

The struggle is in some sort analogous to the old struggle, but circumstances have been constantly changing; there was first the great change of the Reformation, the division of Western Europe into two or more separate theological bodies, and every event since has tended to change the circumstances of the struggle more and more. In a bundle of Swiss papers which we have just been turning over we have lighted on an article in the *Journal de Genève* of April 12, which forcibly sets forth the difference between the old Gallican Catholicism of France and the modern Ultramontanism. Gallicanism was something national; religious and national feeling were fused into one; the Gallican was a Catholic, but his Catholicism was tempered by the fact of his being a Frenchman. A whole series of events for many years tended to put Church and State in France in opposition to one another. The Church therefore became Ultramontane. At this moment the tendency in France is the other way; but elsewhere zealous Catholics find themselves driven to draw close round the Pope as a shelter against heretics or against unfriendly rulers. In the old times Catholic Kings and Commonwealths could defy the Pope, and the most orthodox of their subjects or citizens stood by them in so doing. Then again

other causes have helped to give the struggle a new character, more especially in Germany and Switzerland. Formerly the rule prevailed "Cujus regio ejus est religio." Each prince, each Free City, each democratic commonwealth, settled its ecclesiastical affairs for itself. One forbade the exercise of the Protestant religion; its neighbour did the like by the Catholic religion. But if they could only keep in certain natural feelings, the Catholic power which forbade Protestantism and the Protestant power which forbade Catholicism might meet together in a common Diet to discuss matters of war and alliance which had nothing to do with religion. Each might agree to leave the other to settle the internal affairs of his own territory as he thought good. But as the real principles of toleration have advanced—as men have found out that religious freedom means the right of each man to practise his own religion, not the right of each prince and each State to enforce their own religion on all their subjects—and as the separate States which make up Germany and Switzerland have been growing closer together, these two causes have combined wholly to upset the former state of things. It was simple justice to enforce toleration for the Catholic at Bern and for the Protestant at Luzern. But from this the process is easy to making common ecclesiastical laws for the whole Swiss Confederation and for the whole German Empire, and it can hardly fail but that such laws should press on the Catholics in a way in which they do not press on the Protestants. There is the never-failing difficulty that the Catholic does, after all, hold himself bound to an obedience of some kind or other to a power external to his own country. We cannot think that it is dignified for a Federal Constitution to talk about "resisting the encroachments of the ecclesiastical power." The law ought to be strong enough to assert itself in practice without having in this way to assert itself in words. We shall look with great anxiety to the result of this new legislation. It may be a mere sentimental feeling, but we cannot help regretting that, from whatever cause or with whatever necessity, another blow has been dealt to the feelings of those ancient Cantons without which the Confederation itself could never have been.

NATIONAL BEVERAGES.

IN the discussion on the Budget the other day Mr. Orr Ewing, the member for Dumbartonshire, raised the delicate question of national beverages. According to Mr. Ewing, the Scotch have been much maligned in the matter of intemperance. It is not the habit of the lower orders to recreate themselves with dram-drinking, least of all on Sundays, when profane appearances in public are disengaged. On the contrary, they are merely betrayed into the excessive use of stimulants on special occasions, when they are swept off their legs in a genial flow of good fellowship, and the inherent sprightliness of their nature gets the better of them. On occasions like these they are demonstrative, Mr. Ewing admits, which we take to be a polite euphemism for getting quarrelsome in their cups, referring arguments to the ordeal of battle, or knocking their boon companions on the head in playful exuberance of spirit. The English, on the other hand, perpetually besot themselves. From morn to dewy eve and into the small hours they are always drenching their muddled brains with muddy and adulterated ale. Consequently our English clodhoppers and artisans are altogether wanting in French *esprit*—and, we suppose, in Scotch *wit* also—and there is as little of the flow of soul as of the feast of reason in our city public-houses and village beershops. We fear there is too much truth in Mr. Ewing's estimate of our national habit and its consequences. Unquestionably Englishmen drink a great deal more beer than is good for them, even when their drink is pure malt and hops, which it seldom is. But we fancy, Mr. Ewing's statistics notwithstanding, that many unprejudiced Scotchmen will be slow to recognize the picture of his countrymen's habits which he paints in such rosy colours. In the rural districts of Scotland, which are often sparsely settled, drink is generally hard to come by. When a man must wind up the labours of the day by walking three or four miles to a public-house, he will naturally hesitate. If he is as prudent as the Scotch are supposed to be, the price of the luxury will act as an additional deterrent, for a gill of whisky costs at least twice as much as a pot of beer, and has the disadvantage of being disposed of far more quickly. But in Scotland, as elsewhere, it all resolves itself into a question of temptation; and when the temptation is brought to a Scotchman's door, even his sterner nature is usually too feeble to resist it. The country inns, as Mr. Ewing implies, may do but a moderate local business, except perhaps on Saturday nights. The host may have to eke out his income by the cultivation of his croft, or rely on the patronage of tramps and passing carriers. But look at what goes on in the villages, and still more in the towns. In the villages the rival public-houses drive a trade from week's end to week's end which must be extremely satisfactory to their enterprising proprietors; while in the crowded quarters of the great cities, in the Gallowgate of Glasgow and the Canongate and Cowgate of Edinburgh, the number of the spirit-shops is the sorrow and scandal of philanthropists. There are spirit-shops for almost every class. There are the drinking-bars for clerks and well-to-do tradesmen which conciliate popular notions of decorum by the plates of sandwiches arranged on their counters. There are the meretricious establishments, flaunting their vicious gains in plate-glass and gilding, modelled after the garish architecture of our English gin-palaces,

and enticing the reckless debauchees of both sexes by their flashy attractions. There are the old-fashioned public-houses, dimly lighted and unpretending in their severe simplicity, which studiously respect old traditions and the tastes of the respectable members of the community. These are chiefly frequented by earnest drinkers who fuddle or intoxicate themselves with solemn regularity, being for the most part punctual as clockwork in their habits. Lastly there are the infamous "laugh cellars," to which you descend by a flight of greasy steps from the pavement; semi-subterranean pandemonia, the haunts of the unfortunate outcasts who for many reasons have a preference for the darkness. Even in the day-time the doors of these dens keep moving pretty constantly on their hinges, although where the ragged, haggard customers collect the coppers they squander there is a mystery which is very difficult to fathom. But in the evenings, and especially on the Saturday evenings, they are positively overflowing with a seething crowd who seem to revel in the fetid atmosphere; as very likely they do, for the currents of warm air that set up from the open door are laden with the sickening fumes of whisky.

We fear then that the Scotch can hardly pride themselves pharisaically on exceptional sobriety, and indeed we have never heard that they did. On the contrary, we know that their clergy in synods and general assemblies are always loud in their lamentations over the crying sin of the people. We have understood that comparatively steady mechanics, excellent workmen five days in the week, are in the habit of devoting Sunday to debauch and consecrating the Monday to repose from their Sabbath pleasures. We remember the jovial traditions of the days when wine flowed in freely from France and small stills were running all over the country; we have read the stories in Dean Ramsay's *Recollections* of the Gargantuan banquets of Forfarshire lairds, confirmed the other day in the amusing Memoirs of Archibald Constable. We know that where the laird used to broach his Bordeaux, the farmer and minister were generous of their toddy; that the steaming beverage was seductive, and its ingredients reasonably cheap; that every casual visit came as a godsend, and an excuse for prolonged and hospitable conviviality. We are told that to this day at curling club dinners, to dispose of his dozen of tumblers is the ambition of each strong-built enthusiast in the rousing game; and what the strength of the glasses may be as the evening draws on is a secret only known to the mixer. Keepers, gillies, guides, and boatmen, the class of Celts who get their living by vigorous exercise in the mountain air, can swallow down with almost absolute impunity any quantity of spirits that is likely to be offered them. The people, in short, drink freely; but, notwithstanding the potency of their spirits and the depth of their potations, they are relatively no worse behaved than their neighbours. Nature, which generally orders things wisely, arranges that the drink of a people shall be tempered to them by their constitutions and their climate. The only difficulty she seems to have is in providing anything sufficiently weak to suit excitable Southern temperaments.

There will be excess everywhere, with its inevitable consequences; but, as a rule, free drinking in Northern latitudes goes forward everywhere in a decorous and matter-of-fact fashion. Scandinavians and Russians, for instance, inherit the more than Homeric drinking powers of their ancestors, and can boast of even stronger heads than Scotchmen. Like young Bailey in *Martin Chuzzlewit*, the more they drink, the fuller of good nature they become. Dutchmen nurtured in the North Sea fogs are perfect sand-beds in the way of absorption, and, sitting in their summer-houses over their weed-grown canals, will consume any number of glasses of schiedam without quickening their stagnant pulses. Every one knows that a German's capacity for beer-drinking is only to be gauged by the condition of his purse, although beer, in Bavaria at least, has a good deal of substance in it. Yet in all these countries crimes of violence are rare, and public decorum is seldom very grossly outraged. It is very different in Southern France, and still more in Southern Italy. Take, for instance, the scenes that may be witnessed any day in the *Osterias* outside the gates of Rome, or under the hanging bush displayed everywhere in the long street of villages that skirts the Bay of Naples. The sun is beating down on the burning ground till you can see the warm air dancing and flickering in the sunshine. A group of swarthy men, their loose blouses hanging back from their naked chests, are refreshing themselves round a table under a pent-house in the open air. They are excellent friends as yet, although you might easily mistake them for mortal enemies if you did not understand the ways of the country. They are bending across and grinning in each other's faces with their set teeth, as they brandish their arms wildly about and bring their clenched fists down on the boards before them. They are merely having an amicable chat over everyday matters, and nothing has come up as yet that ought in any degree to excite them. But then their normal condition is highly inflammable, and the wine and sunshine are working on their brains. Anything weaker than the purple earth-flavoured fluid before them they could scarcely drink, unless indeed they fall back upon water. You are familiar yourself with the vintage, and have found it serve well enough to wash down an omelette on a sultry day when your throat was parched, and it was freely diluted. But then it recommended itself to your palate simply from its extreme piquancy and refreshing resemblance to vinegar. Sour and thin as it is, it is fully strong for the gentlemen at the *Osteria* door. A draught or two is apt to make all the difference between boisterous good-humour and a readiness to take offence and quarrel about nothing. A jest is passed somewhat more personal than is altogether

agreeable to its object, and he retorts with another still more offensive. The violence of the gesticulations increases, if possible; the voices rise to screams and yells; the people in the neighbourhood, if there are any, gather around; the presence of onlookers foments the quarrel; every man of course has his knife ready to his hand; the knives are out and stabs interchanged before any one cares to interpose; there is maiming, if not murder, and the foundation is laid for a blood feud between families. Scenes like this are of constant occurrence, as the records of Italian police-courts show, while a great deal of bloodshed goes not only unpunished but unrecorded; and they rather incline one to the conclusion that nature acts kindly and sensibly in obstructing the agricultural development of Italy. As it is, the vineyards are neglected, the wines are made with shameful carelessness, and consequently there is no possibility of keeping them till they acquire decent strength and flavour. If they were made much more heady than they are, these Southern parades would be depopulated by the passions of the people.

Nature usually works wisely if we leave well alone; but every now and then civilization, inspired by cupidity and the spirit of commerce, steps in to disturb her arrangements. When a race of troublesome aborigines obstructs the course of business and the spread of white colonization, if you wish to get rid of them, you need only supply them with a beverage that was never intended for them or their climate. Then the process of extermination will proceed apace, and you will do a brisk trade in the meantime, for they will pay any price for the seductive poison. Had it not been for the serviceable agency of spirits, we should have had a great deal more trouble with the "black fellows" in Australia, while the Maoris of New Zealand would in all probability still have been keeping the field against us. As for the Americans, with their accustomed shrewdness they have always appreciated a judicious development of the liquor trade as a national blessing, and have confined any earnest attempts at enforcing the liquor laws to the tranquil States on the Atlantic seaboard. Now that the relics of the Indian tribes are being swept up into small settlements, the authorities begin to reconsider, as they well may, the morality of a promiscuous trade in fire-water.

TWO STRANGE STORIES.

TWO French steamers belonging to the same Company have been abandoned at sea under circumstances which scarcely seem to have justified that extreme step. The captain of one of these steamers, the *Amérique*, has published a report, in which, after describing the lowering sky, the furious wind, and the sea terrible to witness, he says that the fact became evident that the ship had a leak, and it was assuming dangerous proportions. The water continued to gain, and all hope of saving the ship was gone, so he assembled his officers, and all decided to abandon her. Fortunately three ships were in sight, and to these the passengers and crew were transferred. The captain and the chief engineer were the last to go, and before departing they took a final and rapid survey of the sinking ship. "The catastrophe was fast approaching." The captain was landed by the ship which took him on board at Brest, and there he has doubtless learned that the catastrophe did not arrive. In fact the sinking ship did not sink, but was found floating and derelict, and was boarded and carried into Plymouth. It is not often in these quiet times that anything like a prize is met at sea, and the salvage of a large steamer must amount to a considerable sum. In the other steamer, the *Europe*, a leak was discovered soon after leaving Brest, and the heavy strain of stormy seas increased it. In this case also help was near. A safe transfer of passengers and crew was effected to the steamship *Greece*, which carried them to New York, while a salvage crew went on board the *Europe* and put her head eastwards. The captain of the *Europe* had been certain that she would sink, but a new commander for her was easily found among the officers of the *Greece*. It is indeed alleged by the French captain that he wished to return to his ship and was prevented, and it may be that all the circumstances of this abandonment will be judicially investigated. We shall not hastily conclude that France has ceased to produce seamen, but it is certainly remarkable that twice over a task deemed impracticable by Frenchmen has been undertaken by Englishmen or Americans. If this kind of thing goes on, the whole of our seaside population will do nothing else but look out for salvage. A Deal boat would cruise for a year on the chance of meeting a fine steamer derelict, and we cannot help thinking that this steamer's crew were safer on board of her than are the crew of a coaster in their ordinary duty of carrying coal or stone. A captain in charge of passengers has anxious work, and he may do well to remove them at the earliest moment from a position of unusual risk. But it is a new thing that he and his crew should quit their ship because there happens to be another ship at hand to receive them. If personal safety is to be the first consideration, it might be better not to go to sea at all.

The attempt of the salvage crew to carry the *Europe* into Queenstown failed, and they were taken out of her by another steamer, and left her to her fate. If she has perished, as appears probable, the resolution which is imputed to her captain to abandon her would be to a great extent justified, but he insists that that resolution was never definitely adopted. He charges the captain of the *Greece* with a new form of piracy. His passengers and crew, as well as himself, had got on board the *Greece* in the evening, and next morning, when he desired to return to her, he was roughly pushed back, and refused permission to return. Several of

his officers were willing to return with him, but were prevented. The statements of the passengers of the *Europe* show that they believed she was sinking before help appeared, and they considered themselves fortunate to be put on board the *Greece* as they stood, although afterwards they complained that their baggage had not been saved. If it be true that the ship had been lengthened, and thus weakened, the circumstance will not restore confidence in the unlucky Company which owned her. She was built in compartments, so that a leak might only affect one of them; but unfortunately this was the central compartment, which contained her boilers. It begins to be quite a common incident of the traffic between France and America that passengers should suddenly be told to prepare for death unless help appears. There are so many ships at sea, that help usually does appear, but it seems scarcely necessary that a voyage across the Atlantic should be prolific in thrilling adventures. A strange recklessness seems to prevail both in equipping and managing these French steamers. The *Europe* carried a valuable cargo, including a large quantity of champagne, and if the salvage crew had brought her into port, and had sustained their claim at law, their fortunes would have been made. Putting aside the question whether the French captain voluntarily surrendered the task to them, one cannot but applaud the gallantry of their undertaking. They were not far from mid ocean when they went on board, and they doubtless put her head toward the east because the prevailing heavy gales were westerly. It is a pity that the bold attempt did not succeed, both as an interesting experiment in seamanship, and because it would doubtless have been followed by an interesting lawsuit. But as the attempt failed, and the ship has probably perished, there is perhaps hardly sufficient motive for trying the question between the French captain and the alleged salvors. It appears that the French crew numbered 160, whereas the salvage crew numbered only twenty-two; and if there were a chance of saving the ship, it might have been better to employ more hands upon the work—that is, if their hearts would have been in it. The salvage crew took possession of the *Europe* on 3rd April, and abandoned her on the 6th. They were rescued by the *Egypt*, a steamer belonging to the same Company that owned their own ship the *Greece*. It is a little confusing to have to deal with several ships all named after continents and countries. For the sake of clearness we may notice that the *Amérique* was abandoned on her way to Europe, and the *Europe* on her way to America. The crew and passengers of the *Europe* were saved by the *Greece*, and the salvage crew of the *Greece* were taken from the sinking *Europe* by the *Egypt*.

Either of these two events would be in itself surprising, but the occurrence of both within a fortnight is little short of marvellous. The *Europe* received a salvage crew on the 3rd inst., and the *Amérique* was abandoned on the 14th. As the attempt to save the former was given up, we may assume that it was from the outset hopeless. But the latter is or was lately lying in Plymouth Harbour, apparently in tolerable condition, and perhaps by this time she may have departed for France. The townsmen of Plymouth have heard many strange stories told by sailors, but it must be a long time since they listened to anything more surprising than the log of the steamship *Spray*. Being in company with the barque *Auburn*, on her way to the Mediterranean, she found rolling among the waves a fine Atlantic steamer with a signal of distress flying, and no signs of life or management. The wind was blowing a gale, and with great difficulty she was boarded. She had evidently been abandoned by the passengers and crew in hurry and confusion. Her engines were perfect, but her fires had been drowned out, and over eight feet of water was found in her engine-room. Upon examination of the hull it was thought that if the weather moderated the vessel could be saved. Accordingly the *Spray* took her in tow, and made for Brest, which was about one hundred miles distant. The *Auburn* left two men to help the salvors, and proceeded on her voyage. Another steamer afterwards appeared, and gave assistance. The wind having shifted and the sea moderated, the course was changed for Plymouth, where the prize was safely anchored.

One cannot help inferring that, if the French captain and his crew had stuck to their ship, they would have performed no very dangerous act of duty. Help would have almost surely come to them if they had needed it, as is shown by the fact that the deserted *Amérique* was found by the *Spray* and the *Spray* was afterwards joined by another steamer. The occurrences immediately before the abandonment of the *Amérique* have been described by her passengers and captain, and it appears that, as might have been expected from Frenchmen, they quitted their ship with a grace and dignity which the Gods might have admired if they had not at that moment been busy in making a gale of wind. We may admit that Englishmen would not have made such an elegant exit, for this, among other reasons, that they would have stayed on board. "Save your life and lose your ship" is not a principle upon which anything great is ever likely to be done at sea. An early navigator would probably have admonished this French crew in some such terms as Frederick of Prussia used to run away soldiers after he had subdued his own early impulse toward flight. "Vile refuse of scoundrels," said he, "do you want then to live for ever?" It must, however, be a great consolation to this French captain to remember that he called his passengers on deck and bade them put on their life-belts and show their coolness and courage. Indeed, the leading actor at a sensational theatre could not have surpassed the captain's deportment under these trying circumstances. The captain ranged the whole of the company on the bulwarks in the order in which they were to

go—the women and children first, the male passengers next, and then the crew. Then the boats were lowered, and with great danger and difficulty the passengers were transferred to the three ships which had fortunately come up to their rescue. A pilot of Brest exhibited in the performance of this duty "a spectacle of sublime heroism." The captain saw all the people under his charge put into the boats before he left the ship. It was night before he quitted her, and in the morning she had disappeared. All her officers believed that she had foundered, and it must have astonished them to learn that she had found her way to Plymouth, and that her builders had examined her, and declared that the damage done to her was very small indeed. This ship is like the hospital patient who, after having his time of decease duly calculated by the doctors for the instruction of their pupils, had the audacity to become better, and declined to die until it might please Heaven.

It is only lately that another ship belonging to this unlucky Company, the *Ville du Havre*, came into disastrous collision with a sailing ship under circumstances which only French eyes could view as otherwise than discreditable to the steamer's management. In that case also a number of passengers were suddenly called from security to face, apparently, instant death. Of course the Company to whom all these things occur may be only unlucky, like the naval officer who was three times shipwrecked with total loss. Notwithstanding his approved skill and courage, the Admiralty could scarcely be blamed for being shy of giving him a fourth ship.

THE ROYAL ACADEMY.

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AGAIN we have to announce a pleasing exhibition of average excellence, and no more. The old stagers play their accustomed parts indifferently well; the worst pictures again come as a matter of course from Academicians and Associates whose wanning reputation is allowed to throw into shade the rising talent of the day. Still, when full allowance has been made for the injustice incident to vested interests, we readily admit that the game is afterwards played out among the outsiders with a tolerably even hand. Doubtless here and there cruel deeds have been done in the way of thrusting to the sky pictures which deserve to be seen on the horizon level, yet we are willing to admit that for the most part the Academy is so far awake to its own interests as to make the best show out of the wares submitted to its choice. The Council has this year at all events opened the door of admission more widely than ever it did before. When Burlington House was first taken possession of, the idea obtained favour that the Exhibition should be kept select, choice, and proportionately exclusive. Accordingly, in the year 1869 the number of works entered in the Catalogue was only 1,320, in 1870 the total sank to 1,229, and in 1871 the number did not rise beyond 1,339. But in the following Exhibition a change of policy is indicated by a sudden leap to 1,583; last season the numbers touched 1,600; and now a climax is reached at 1,624, the greatest number ever accommodated. These figures show an increase in the works exhibited of twenty-three per cent. since the opening of the present Galleries in 1869. Opinions are naturally divided both within and without the Academy as to the advantage or otherwise of the more liberal course now adopted. The notion for the moment uppermost is that a place in the Academy, even on the worst of terms, is a privilege—in other words, that admission is better than exclusion. But when experts differ, who shall decide? Yet the last experimental measure now before us determines at least three points—(1st) that the extra pictures placed at the cornice cannot be seen; (2nd) that they are useful as masses of colour and generally as wall-decorations, especially in the absence of a single scrap of drapery; (3rd) that, strange to say, the average quality of the Exhibition does not suffer. In fact the present collection can only be rightly estimated or charitably excused under the law of averages. There are few surprises, no exceptional flashes of genius; the general level, in short, ranges from a little below to a little above that modest mediocrity in which the Academy plays, as its peculiar privilege, the first fiddle. And yet, taken altogether, things are so well managed that the present Exhibition can scarcely fail of the success of its predecessors.

Seldom, if ever, have more forces been brought into the field, and the statistics presented by the muster-roll show some points of interest which it may be worth while to register. It is true that the whole company of Honorary Foreign Academicians, including M. Gallait, M. Gérôme, and M. Meissonier, with three besides, either shirk their duties or despise their privileges. And as these distinguished members make themselves over successive years conspicuous chiefly by their absence, we venture to suggest that the time is come when more zealous men should be appointed to reign in their stead. The competitors are many, as the contributions by M. Israels, M. Tidemand, M. Frère, and others prove. As for our English members, they are but too eager to insist on their privileges. Of forty Academicians and twenty Associates, the only absentees of consequence are Mr. Cooke, Mr. Goodall, Mr. Richmond, and Mr. Frederick Walker. From within the Academy 52 artists produce 167 works, and from 911 outsiders come a total of no less than 1,457 products. These figures speak volumes. On the one side it has been urged that the Academy owes its success to the outsiders, on the other that the Academy acts liberally in the interest of artists at large by the free

admission of talent wherever found. Each alternative finds support in the crowded galleries to be thrown open to the public on Monday next.

The Academy this year will be wanting in salient points, yet several artists have been liberal in their favours—some too liberal. Mr. Millais exhibits seven pictures, one or two of which might have been spared; Sir Francis Grant has of course been prolific, but he is kindly content with six portraits only; Mr. Frith, who this year has a religious fit upon him, is fortunately able to say his say within the limit of five compositions—processional, spiritual, and other; Mr. Watts has also five pictures; Mr. Leighton four; and Mr. Poynter, we regret to find, only one. Yet, as we have said, the efforts of genius which can arouse a sensation come few and far between. Among Academicians, Mr. Millais undoubtedly must again be the most loudly talked of, Mr. Leighton the most quietly commended, while among the outsiders favour and possibly improved position will be won by Mr. W. B. Richmond, Mr. Marcus Stone, Mr. Alma Tadema, Mr. Brett, Mr. Briton Rivière, Mr. Archer, Mr. Leader, Mr. Eyre Crowe, Mr. Ouless, Mr. Peter Graham, Mr. MacWhirter, Mr. H. Hardy, Mr. Armstrong, Mr. Albert Moore, Mr. Henry Moore, and others. It is evident then that the lists from which the next Associates may be elected are more than sufficiently stocked with candidates.

A glance at the rooms in succession will bring into view the pictures which seize the eye on a first visit. Galleries Nos. 1 and 2 open rather flatly from the preponderance of poor or false products; indeed the first room is saved from fiasco chiefly by two landscapes by Mr. Millais, "Scotch Firs" (68), and "Winter Fuel" (75). We have at present only space to say that these bold and unflinching yet conscientious studies from nature have little of the slightness and incompleteness of former and more experimental efforts. On the whole, these companion landscapes are the most remarkable products of the year. The other pictures best worthy of note are "Our Northern Walls" (20), by Mr. P. Graham; "Under the Lee of a Rock" (26), by Mr. Hook, R.A.; and portrait of the "Rev. James Martineau" (51), by Mr. Watts, R.A. On entering the second Gallery the eye is assaulted by a well-meant monstrosity, one of the few aspirations here to be seen in the way of Christian art. Mr. Horsley's "Healing Mercies of Christ" (128), an incongruous compound of traditional styles and common nature, will find, we are informed, a resting place in the chapel of St. Thomas's Hospital, in accordance with the wish of the late Sir William Tite. If the medical staff of the Hospital have no better art at their command their patients must suffer cruelly. Among other pictures which remain in the memory are "My Lady is a Widow, and Childless" (106), by Mr. Marcus Stone; "Summer Noon in the Scilly Isles" (139), by Mr. Brett; "Calling the Roll after an Engagement, Crimea" (142), by Miss E. Thompson, and the "Picture Gallery" (157), by Mr. Alma Tadema.

The Banqueting Hall, otherwise Gallery No. 3, in which the President gives proof at the annual dinner of his well-known literary tastes and of his profound studies in the history of art, again presents an aspect, if not quite historic, at any rate fashionable and commercial, by virtue of a display of portraits unusual in number, even within the Academy. The hanging has the advantage of being decorative in the upholstering sense; this, the grand Gallery, is so well filled and furnished that the topmost row, reaching to a fourth story, exhibits a sky outline of trees and mountains barely visible. Figures, in an Academy which for the most part cannot draw the figure, have, by the rule of contraries, the advantage over landscapes. Here is the place of honour, for about fifty *chefs-d'œuvre* of Academicians and Associates, among which the following are the favourites—"Capital and Labour" (179), by Mr. Marks, A.R.A.; "A State Secret" (223), by Mr. Pettie, R.A.; "Forgiven" (227), by Mr. Faed, R.A.; Portrait of "The late John Stuart Mill" (246), by Mr. Watts, R.A.; "Charles II. and Lady Rachel Russell" (252), by Mr. Ward, R.A.; "Returning the Salute" (286), by Mr. Hodgson, A.R.A.; "The Adoration of the Magi" (308), by Mr. Herbert, R.A.; "The Queen of the Tournament" (335), by Mr. Calderon, R.A.; and "An Antique Juggling Girl" (348), by Mr. Leighton, R.A. This great Gallery, which is proverbially difficult of hanging, and in which the speeches of the President, Her Majesty's Ministers, the Lord Mayor, and others are frequently inaudible, makes itself most conspicuous to the eye at two foci on opposite walls. Upon one is seen Mr. Millais's masterpiece, "The North-West Passage" (320), with the suggestive motto "It might be done and England should do it." The picture is far too artistic to be dismissed with a word; we hope to describe it hereafter. As a *vis-à-vis* hangs a picture scarcely less clever, though in very different way—"Blessing Little Children; an episode in the great annual Procession of Our Lady of Boulogne" (243). Mr. Frith, who, like the President, is evidently much more studious and profound than the world imagines, inserts as an explanatory text to this religious procession the following misunderstood passage from a well-known profane author, whose name the Catalogue kindly gives us:—"One touch of nature makes the whole world kin." We think the artist is more true to his genius when in this religious revel he paints in sharp satire outside one of the shops crowded with a Gallic galaxy, "Priez pour l'Angleterre." The picture, were it seen in the Paris salon, could not fail to move French artists to a like merciful petition.

Subsequent rooms lead the spectator pleasantly onward; subjects some of which are new are treated with that independence and

honesty which never fail to give value and freshness to our English school. Yet "The Applicants for Admission to a Casual Ward" (504), by Mr. Fildes, though one of the marked pictures of the year, is a mistake; the materials are too revolting for an art which should seek to please, refine, and elevate. In like manner Mr. Holman Hunt's clever portrait of "Mr. Thomas Fairbairn" (660) sinks art, and does scant justice to nature. Gallery No. 7 still shows unexhausted resources; among other pledges of genius soars high the giant form of "Prometheus Bound" (687), by Mr. W. B. Richmond. "The Lecture Room," sometimes a place for odds and ends, now assumes a varied yet symmetric guise. Here appear "A Dream of Fair Women of Ancient Greece" (1029), by Mr. Armitage, R.A.; "A Girl Watching a Tortoise" (1054), by Mr. Armstrong; and another like classic figure, "Shells" (930), by Mr. Albert Moore. We mention these three works as signs of a coming time; we hope, though against hope, that decorative art, mural and monumental, may yet be practised in England as in Italy of old. Amongst the "water-colour drawings" the most noteworthy is the portrait of "Mrs. George Smith" (869), by Mr. Frederick Burton, the new Director of the National Gallery. And in the room set apart to architectural designs &c., a conscious place is assigned to models showing, in form, colour, and relief, the design by Mr. William Burges for the decoration of the nave and choir of St. Paul's Cathedral (1327-1328). The projected work is of such national importance as to claim further and separate notice.

The Academy has inevitably again given offence by the rejection, the reception, and the hanging of contributions which year by year grow more and more beyond control. But we are bound to say that, with every desire to be watchful and critical, we find on the whole the spirit of fairness; indeed, were not justice the rule and injustice only the exception, the Academy would long ago have turned a success into a failure. As to the hanging, we gladly note in the "Lecture Room" and elsewhere an inclination to break the line and to arrange in blocks. Nowhere else in Europe has the prejudice and falsely assumed privilege of the "line" been so unreasonably cherished as here, and the sooner the system is superseded the better it will be for all parties. Burlington House has wall space sufficient to show all that needs or deserves to be seen sufficiently well, though not precisely on the line; and after making liberal allowance for the preposterous privileges of sixty Members and Associates, the remaining mishaps in hanging may be set down chiefly to accident or to inevitable exigencies. The Academy gives earnest of good intentions for the future in the promise now put forth to continue for the instruction of students and of the public at large the Winter exhibitions of "the masterpieces of ancient and modern times." The announcement is made that the next exhibition will "be more especially devoted to presenting as complete a collection as possible of the works of Sir A. W. Callcott, R.A., W. Etty, R.A., and D. Macallie, R.A." Within these walls the living are thus brought into communion with the dead, and what may be false in the fleeting fashion of the moment receives correction when tried by the stricter standards of historic times.

NEWMARKET CRAVEN MEETING.

WHEN things come to the worst they usually mend. So at least the proverb says, and we shall be curious to see whether it will hold good in regard to racing at Newmarket. It is not possible for the sport at the headquarters of racing to fall to a lower ebb than it reached during the past Craven Meeting; but we confess we see few signs of any rise of the tide. It must be said in fairness that there were unusually depressing circumstances attending the resumption of racing this year at Newmarket. Foremost among these was the death of Baron Rothschild, one of the most munificent supporters of racing, and who was peculiarly attached to Newmarket, and rarely lost an opportunity of engaging his horses in the small as well as large races. We could nearly always reckon on seeing the Baron's colours twenty times during a Newmarket week; and it is easy to see therefore what a difference the absence of the blue and yellow has made in the appearance of the card, especially as the ranks of owners have suffered other serious losses since the termination of the last racing campaign. Still, when all allowances are made, the fact remains that there are more than eight hundred horses in training at Newmarket, and that there were five races on the first day of the Craven Meeting—two of which were reduced to matches, while one was contested by three horses; four on the second day, two of which brought out three horses, and the third a couple only; and three on the concluding day, when the so-called sport lasted exactly one hour. We do not pretend to suggest the reasons why, with so many horses on the spot, the best racecourse in the world should be left thus barren of competitors; nor do we say whether it is owing to the apathy of owners or the obstinate adherence of the Jockey Club to their old-fashioned programmes, that racing at Newmarket is so rapidly losing its former reputation. But we may venture to remark that there is little use in keeping up a farce, and that it is unnecessary trouble to continue to prolong meetings over four and five days when the sport provided is not sufficient to last through two.

The very few items of interest which came under our notice last week will not detain us long. Drummond opened the ball by an exercise canter in the Craven Stakes, thus securing the first victory

for M. Lefèvre, without whose support it would be difficult to imagine how any racing at all could be carried on at Newmarket under present circumstances. In the Breby Plate, Blenheim also made a gallant struggle for the tricolour; but though the old horse was looking wonderfully well, his crushing weight prevented him from getting quite home, though he was an excellent third to the Finesse colt and Morocco. The Biennial for three-year-olds was of course the race of the day, and of the week also. There were ten competitors, M. Lefèvre being represented by Miss Toto and Exile, Lord Falmouth by Aquilo, and Mr. Cartwright by George Frederick, while the remainder included Reverberation (who ran a dead heat with Quantock in the Spencer Plate at Northampton), Sugarcane, Trent, Sister to Ryshworth, and Cambyses. On public form the lot were all moderate, with the exception of Miss Toto, and her appearance was by no means satisfactory, as she seems neither to have grown nor improved since last year. George Frederick was the best-looking horse of the ten, but obviously short of preparation, while Aquilo did not seem likely to give even a good account of himself as he did last autumn. It was generally regarded as a certainty for Miss Toto, even allowing for her lack of improvement, and during the race, and up to within one hundred and fifty yards from the finish, she seemed to be winning as she pleased. She tired however so much at the final hill, and stopped so suddenly, that Reverberation, coming with a great rush, was able to make a dead heat with her, and it is more than probable that she has no great staying power. George Frederick was a moderate third, with Trent and Aquilo next. It will thus be seen that the race lacked that interest which in former years the presence of such competitors as The Earl and Blue Gown, Albert Victor and Favonius, gave it; and moreover it had little bearing on future events. Save that George Frederick ran with gameness, and that he is certain to make considerable improvement before the Derby Day, there is hardly anything to mention as regards the future about the horses which ran in the Biennial; while Miss Toto's deterioration in form still further reduces the little band of horses whose claims to pre-eminence over their fellows were undisputed last year. Ecossais and Miss Toto stood quite by themselves last year above all the other two-year-olds; and now Miss Toto appears to be a non-stayer, the chances of Ecossais standing a preparation are very doubtful, and their most formidable opponent, Marsworth, is disqualified for all his engagements. Should Ecossais not come to the post for the Derby, it may confidently be reckoned that the great three-year-old prize of the year will be contested by as moderate a field as has ever assembled on Epsom Downs. On the second day there was a spirited race between Roquefort and Oxonian at even weights, which the French horse cleverly secured; and then eleven competitors faced the starter for the Newmarket Handicap. Among them were Tomahawk, the winner of the Lincoln Handicap, Falkland, Royal George, Tichborne, and Lydon—a six-year-old with 7 st. 1 lb. on his back. We need only say that the distance appeared too far for Tomahawk, who hung so much through distress as to interfere materially with the chances of Royal George and Tichborne. There was, indeed, as nearly as possible a scrimmage between these three, and Lydon, taking advantage of it, came away at his leisure and won easily by five lengths; but, considering his age and weight, the performance is no great feather in the cap of his sire Gladiateur. A very fine race between Flageolet and Gang Forward over the severe course from the Ditch resulted in the victory by a head of M. Lefèvre's horse, for whom his stable companion Negro made the running to the best of his ability. Gang Forward appears to have quite recovered from the effects of the accident which caused his withdrawal from the Leger. In the last race of the day Kaiser had no opponents worthy of his steel, but he both looked and went so well that he will probably do good service this year to Mr. Savile in Cup races. Of the three races which made up the bill of fare on the last day of the Craven Meeting we need only say that one of them was appropriately called the Refuse Plate, and that a horse named Rubbish ran in it. Refuse and Rubbish are indeed words that not unfitly suggest the character of much of the sport that was witnessed at Newmarket during the first meeting of 1874.

The Jockey Club held their first meeting for the year last week, and the Duke of St. Albans brought forward his motion that no member of the Jockey Club should be allowed to run horses under an assumed name. The official report of the proceedings goes on to state that, his Grace having stated that he did not wish to press it to a division, the matter dropped. Why he should trouble himself to bring forward a motion if he does not wish to see it carried we are not told, and are at a loss to imagine. It may possibly be that no members of the Jockey Club at the present time are in the habit of availing themselves of the 22nd rule of racing; but it does not follow that their successors will equally abstain from the use of assumed names. In our opinion assumed names are indefensible under any circumstances, and their use is calculated to do great damage to the interests of a national sport. If people have reasons which make them anxious that their names should not be known to the world at large, it is very probable that they are such reasons as make their patronage of the Turf not altogether desirable. But certainly the members of the Jockey Club, who are supposed to set an example of straightforwardness and independence in racing transactions, ought to be selected from among those who can afford to indulge their tastes without finding it expedient to conceal their identity. After this very mild proceeding on the part of the Duke of St. Albans,

General Peel brought forward and carried a useful resolution having for its object the prevention of hasty legislation, or of sudden alterations of the rules of racing. Great inconvenience, and we may add great scandal also, has been caused by the Jockey Club revising its rules and rescinding its previous resolutions almost at a moment's notice, at any chance meeting, perhaps thinly attended and insufficiently advertised. The rule which, on the motion of General Peel, has now been added to the rules of racing provides that "no new rule can be passed, or any existing rule rescinded or altered, without being previously advertised three times in the sheet *Racing Calendar*, and notice given of the meeting of the Jockey Club at which it is to be proposed"; and power is reserved to owners and others affected by such new rule or alteration to petition the Jockey Club. The wording of General Peel's resolution is clumsy in the extreme, but its intention is excellent, and it will probably serve the purpose for which it was designed.

It was hardly to be expected that there should be no grumbling at Mr. Anderson's new Betting Bill, but its rapid and unchallenged progress through the House of Commons must have convinced its opponents of the futility of any endeavours to hinder a much-needed piece of legislation. No reasonable person can justify the exemption of Scotland from the provisions of an Act applying to all other parts of the United Kingdom. The reason why the Betting Houses Act was not originally extended to Scotland was that Scotchmen were not believed to possess any taste for betting on horse-races, and it was not considered necessary to apply a remedy where no evil existed. Nor are there any grounds for supposing that Scotchmen at the present day are more disposed to favour betting than they were twenty years ago. It is not the people of Edinburgh and Glasgow who are caught by the baits held out to them by commission agents and tipsters; but Edinburgh and Glasgow are cities of refuge for those gentry whence they may scatter broadcast through England their invitations to the ignorant and the unwary. The electric telegraph enables the lucrative business of a commission agent to be carried on as easily at Edinburgh as in London; and hence the intention of the Betting Houses Act has been successfully and systematically frustrated. But Mr. Anderson's Bill does more than extend the Act of 1853 to Scotland; it greatly enlarges the scope of that Act. The Betting Houses Act dealt, as its name imports, principally with houses; and the offence against it consisted principally in the possession or occupation of a local habitation used for purposes of betting. Mr. Anderson makes the publication of advertisements and circulars, whether appearing in newspapers or issued through the post, an equal offence whether the advertiser has a house or not, or dates his advertisements from some specific address or not. His object is to deal a decisive blow at the whole tribe of commission agents, Turf advisers, and the like, who do not receive their victims personally, but conduct their transactions with them by correspondence only. We confess we are somewhat surprised that a Bill effecting so considerable a change and containing such stringent provisions should have passed through all its stages in the House of Commons with hardly any remark, but we are not the less gratified that a piece of legislation which we have advocated for years should now be in a fair way of accomplishment. The Government having wisely resolved to support the Bill, the tongues of more than one zealous Conservative who in years past have angrily resisted the attempts of Mr. Hughes and others to deal with the question were tied; and we heard nothing more about the liberty of the subject, one law for the rich and one for the poor, and other hackneyed arguments which were duly paraded year after year. As a matter of fact, the suppression of commission agencies and betting advertisements will not interfere in the smallest degree with the liberty of the subject, or stop those who desire to gamble on horse-races from indulging their taste as much as they please. Mr. Anderson neither expects nor wishes to abolish betting, nor does the Legislature; and therefore a good deal that has been written about the hopelessness of endeavouring to compel the English people to give up a favourite taste might have been well spared. Those who like to bet may do so, and will find as good opportunities for betting as ever; but flattering and fallacious inducements will no longer be allowed to be held out to those who would never think of betting if they were not attracted by the glittering character of the prospects offered to their notice. As we have often observed, the lucrative nature of the business carried on by commission agents and Turf advisers is abundantly shown by the amount of money they find it worth their while to pay for advertisements—often charged for at an extra price—in the sporting papers and in country papers, the country districts being the stronghold of their operations. From the enormous sums paid weekly to the proprietors of newspapers for the cost of advertisements of the class referred to, we may safely infer that very much comes in to the coffers of the commission agents, and that very little goes out. Mr. Anderson's Bill aims at nothing more than the correction of this unsatisfactory state of affairs. The public may continue to bet, if the public likes; but that is no reason why a singularly unpleasant class of persons should be allowed to grow rich and to fatten at the expense of the public.

REVIEWS.

TOZER'S LECTURES ON THE GEOGRAPHY OF GREECE.*

MR. TOZER'S name must be well known to many persons that of a diligent traveller, and one who travels with his eyes open, in Greece and the neighbouring countries. He has already given the world some record of his travels, and now he gives us the results, both of what he has seen and what he has read, in a more regular and scientific shape. The book consists of lectures delivered in Oxford—it is not said before what audience—"as one of a number of courses voluntarily undertaken by members of the University on subjects indirectly connected with the usual studies." Among these, Mr. Tozer was "requested to lecture on Greek Geography." He does not say by whom, but clearly by some one who knew where to go to get the matter in hand well done. Mr. Tozer has got hold of a good subject, and he has treated it thoroughly well. He acknowledges his obligations to earlier writers, but every word of the book is written in a way in which it could have been written only by one who thoroughly knew in his own person the places of which he is speaking. Mr. Tozer need hardly have set out with a quotation from Mr. Ruskin complaining how "scholars have only the names of the hills and rivers of Greece upon their lips, and never one line of conception of them in their mind's sight." Then there is something about "the great mountain vase of Arcadia" and about "mere airy syllablings of names," all which Mr. Tozer thinks that "it would probably require the Professor's eloquent pen to describe properly." The "airy syllablings of names," whatever that may be, may be safely left to Mr. Ruskin; but for describing Arcadia or any other intelligible part of the earth's surface, we would much rather have Mr. Tozer's pen than Mr. Ruskin's. Mr. Tozer gives us a clear account of the geography of Arcadia, but he does not call it a "mountain vase." He knows his subject too well to go off into mere talk or affectation about anything. He takes geography in its widest sense, and his special object is to point out the effect which the physical character of the country had in so many ways upon the political and intellectual life of its inhabitants, on their art, their mythology, and everything to do with them. The Greeks in Greece were placed in a land which gave their natural gifts the fullest play. Mr. Tozer says truly that a settlement of Mongols among the mountains, valleys, and islands of Greece, or again a settlement of Greeks on the plains of Hungary, could neither of them ever have been what the Greeks in Greece actually were. It was probably the difference of the countries in which they settled which made so early and so wide a difference between the Greeks and those other nations which inquiries of another kind have shown to be most closely connected with them. Scientific ethnology cannot draw any hard and fast line between Greeks and barbarians. It looks on many of the nations which the Greeks called barbarians as being closely akin to themselves. The distinction fades gradually away through Aetolians, Epeirots, Macedonians, into Illyrians, Thracians, Phrygians, whose connexion with the pure Hellenes it still needs a good deal of faith in scientific research to believe. Mr. Tozer is not immediately concerned with these matters, nor does he touch on the question raised by Curtius and others about Ionians on the other side of the Aegean ages before the commonly received Ionian colonization. His subject is geography, and questions of this kind concern him only incidentally. But we see that, in treating the geography of Greece, he is no more able to draw any hard and fast line between what is Greece and what is not than it is possible to draw one between those who are Greeks and those who are not. Greece is the climax, so to speak, of the insular and peninsular system of the Mediterranean; as Strabo showed long ago, it is a system of peninsulas within peninsulas. And Peloponnesos itself is the Acropolis, as Mr. Tozer calls it, of a whole region whose base must be sought far beyond the bounds of anything which would at any time have been called Greece. We must in fact start in our Greek geography with Haemus and the Illyrian Alps. From that range the country narrows and narrows, peninsula succeeds to peninsula. And, in the like sort, the Hellenic character of the inhabitants gets clearer and clearer, from the mere barbarians, through the kindred barbarians of Thrace and Illyria, through what we may call the border races of Northern and Western Greece, till we reach the Peloponnesian Acropolis itself. Within this range we can well believe that the development of the various kindred races depended mainly on the country which they occupied. We may feel sure with Mr. Tozer that neither Mongols in Attica nor Hellenes in Hungary could have become what the Greeks in Greece did become; but it is quite possible that the difference between Athenians and Macedonians, or even Illyrians, was largely owing to the difference of the countries in which their early forefathers fixed themselves. In all ages it has been noticed that some nations have shown a power of accepting Hellenic civilization and becoming artificial Hellenes which others have not. The Sikels showed it in old times, and the Albanians, the representatives of the Illyrians, have shown it in the most modern times. That the Sikels were a kindred race with the Greeks has been clear for a long time. That the Illyrians were so it is much harder to believe, but the one fact now seems to be as undoubted as the other.

Mr. Tozer, after his general sketch of the geography of the region of which Greece forms a part, goes on to speak of those

* *Lectures on the Geography of Greece.* By the Rev. Henry Fanshawe Tozer, M.A., F.R.G.S. London: Murray. 1873.

who have dealt with the subject in ancient and modern times. He here pays a deserved tribute to the services of Colonel Leake, as the man who really opened Greek geography to the world. He then takes us through the main features of Greek geography—the mountains, the seas, the promontories, the rivers, lakes, caverns, and so forth. Through all these he carefully goes, dwelling on the effect which each of these elements had on the nature of the country and on the character of the people, and dwelling especially on the appropriateness of the names and epithets of the natural objects throughout Greece. As he says, it is the combination of the mountains and the sea which made the Greeks what they were, both in the political and intellectual character of the whole nation and in the special characters of each particular part of it. All this has been often pointed out before in a general way, but Mr. Tozer has worked it out in detail in a specially instructive and interesting manner. What is distinctive of Greek geography is the close union of features which elsewhere are found apart. And so what is distinctive of the Greek character in history is the union of so many qualities which elsewhere are found apart. Compare Greece, for instance, with the two countries which have done most for freedom on the modern European continent. Fresh from Mr. Tozer's speculations, we are tempted to say that neither Switzerland nor the United Provinces could be as Greece, because one had only the mountains and the other only the sea, while Greece had the sea and the mountains both together. But in speculations of this kind it does not do to talk in quite so general a way as this. Greece could not have been what she was without the union of the sea and the mountains, but the union of the sea and the mountains could hardly have made Greece what she was without the help of other peculiarities of soil and climate, which Mr. Tozer works out very carefully in detail. "The soil of Greece," he says, "was beneficent to its cultivators in what it denied as well as in what it gave." Had the soil of Attica and Aegina been more fruitful, their inhabitants would not have been driven to take to the sea and become great maritime powers. The climate of Greece as a whole helped the growth of Greek intellect and of the Greek language, while the soil, not fertile, as a rule, without cultivation and irrigation, but well repaying cultivation and irrigation, forced the inhabitants to agriculture and other industry. In this way the Greeks of old Greece were really better off than their colonists in more promising lands:—

In the cultivation of art, the continent of Greece was for a long time outstripped by its colonies. We have no coins from Greece Proper that will bear comparison with those of Magna Graecia, and by far the finest specimens of early architecture are the temples of Paestum, Selinus, and Agrigentum. In those countries, and on the fertile shore of Asia Minor, the rapid development of the wealth of the cities offered facilities for the cultivation of refined tastes; but the same cause undermined their vigour and their patriotism, and ultimately deprived them of their independence. In the products of continental Greece, also, there was nothing to minister to indulgence; they provided what was necessary for life, while articles of luxury had to be imported from abroad.

After Mr. Tozer's survey of Greece as a whole, he goes more in detail through its several parts, in which he cannot help taking in Macedonia, though he rules it perhaps a little too strongly to be "a country in no sense Hellenic." From "non-Hellenic" Macedonia he passes into "semi-Hellenic" Thessaly, the great plain surrounded by mountains and drained by a single river and its tributaries, and presenting in its political history a state of things intermediate between Southern Greece and the countries to the North. We are little surprised when Mr. Tozer gets to the West of Thessaly, and says that "Little need be said of the countries which compose the West of Greece—Ilyria, Epirus, Acarnania, and Aetolia—because they were only slightly hellenized." It is certainly rather strange to find all these countries put on a level, for Ilyria has surely a much less claim to be called a part of Greece than Macedonia has; and about the Aetolians, rude as they were and bad as was the character which they commonly bore, the only person who is recorded to have called their Hellenic character into question was, oddly enough, the last Philip of Macedon. A people who appear in the Homeric Catalogue must not be spoken of as only slightly hellenized, nor was the Hellenic character of the Acarnanians ever questioned, though their country must have become Hellenic later than the Catalogue, as in Homer Acarnania appears simply as part of Epeiros. We suspect that Mr. Tozer has been led to slur over the several distinct positions held by these countries through his sharing, as he gives signs of doing in one or two other places, the common fault of undervaluing the Federal period of Grecian history. He himself points out that Epeiros was one of the earliest seats of the Greek nation, and indeed the land where the nation first received the name by which it was known on the other side of the Adriatic. Then comes the singular fact that this ancient seat of the nation, which contained the oldest and one of the most venerated of its sanctuaries, should afterwards come to be very generally looked on as a non-Hellenic land. It has been often pointed out that the line in these parts was not very strictly drawn, and that Herodotus, the traveller, antiquary, and ethnologist, counts as Greeks several tribes whom Thucydides, the practical politician, counts as barbarians. Kings who were allowed to be Hellenic ruled over a people whose Hellenic character was at least doubtful, till in the end their dynasty gave way to a federal republic of the Greek type, which was fully acknowledged as a Greek State. All these countries, Ilyria, Epeiros, Acarnania, and Aetolia, stand each in its own distinct relation to the general body of the Greek nation. But their importance comes out mainly at the two ends of Greek history; they play no very important part in the intermediate

times. Another case where Mr. Tozer has gone wrong through neglecting the later Grecian history appears when he comes to Mantinea, and reckons up, as Dr. Smith has done before him in the *Dictionary of Geography*, five battles of Mantinea. But one of these, in which Agis is made to die in a battle against Aratos, is due only to a blunder of Pausanias, which has been pointed out by more than one historian of the later times of Greece. It is strange that two writers, one after another, should be content to copy a statement so manifestly wrong, as we can hardly think it possible that either Dr. Smith or Mr. Tozer should never have heard how Agis really died. All this comes from one of the errors that we have often to fight against—namely, thinking that Greek history came to an end at Chaironeia. And, while we are on this head, we cannot help wondering a little that Mr. Tozer, who knows Greece so well, should have made so few attempts to connect the mediæval and modern history of the country with its history in what are called classical times. Surely it is part of the history of Athens that Alaric turned away from her walls scared, so men said, by her still protecting goddess, and that the Slayer of the Bulgarians chose her Acropolis as the scene of his triumph.

But we are not in a mood for finding fault with so praiseworthy a book as Mr. Tozer's. He winds up with a suggestive chapter on Greek local nomenclature. In his view it is almost wholly, as all local nomenclature must be largely, descriptive; and he notices a point of difference between Greek nomenclature and our own, that there is nothing in the primitive Greek names of places at all answering to such endings as *ham*, *ton*, and *chester* among ourselves. This is perfectly true of the early nomenclature; names ending in *νόλης* are almost always of late date, and it is only at a stage of much later dates still that we get our own *chester* in Greece in the form of *καστρον*. The difference is doubtless because the nomenclature of Greece belongs to a much earlier stage of national life than the Teutonic nomenclature of Britain. Mr. Tozer might also have mentioned that the tribe names, which form so large a part of local nomenclature both in England and Germany, play a much smaller part in that of Greece; names ending in *ιδας* or *αιδας*, answering to our various uses of *ing*, are not uncommon. There are, for instance, a good many of them in the list of the Attic *δῆμοι*, but they are in nothing like the same proportion as they would be in an analogous list of English names. And almost all the names of this form are those of small places; indeed, even in England the *ing* is not common in names of our larger towns; that is to say, the place either in Greece or in England which bore the gentle name was a settlement of a single *gens* only, while anything worthy to be called a city grew out of the settlement of several *gentes*. Mr. Tozer ends with a very short comparison of ancient and modern names in Greece. We only wish he had carried it out at much greater length. Lord Strangford used to tell a story of his indignation at a waiter at Corfu who spoke of his island as *Kiprupsa*. First of all, he ought to have called it *Korupou*, being as good a Greek name as the other; but, if he wanted to be archaic, he should have used the local *Kiprupsa* instead of the Attic *Kiprupsa*. This last blow might also have fallen rightly, not only on the shoulders of the waiter, but on those of some half-learned sneerers at Mr. Grote, who had never read their Strabo and Pausanias, and had never seen a Korkyra coin.

We part with Mr. Tozer with all good will. Will he only give us a little more, coming down a little later?

STANLEY'S COOMASSIE AND MAGDALA.*

M. STANLEY is the first Correspondent to publish an account of the Ashantee war. For no very sufficient reason he has added an account of the Abyssinian expedition. In the days when Mr. Stanley went to Magdala as Correspondent of the *New York Herald* he had not performed the feat to which he owes his celebrity; and the public curiosity, we presume, was not thought to be sufficiently keen to justify the publication of his history of the earlier war. The opinions of a gentleman who reached Livingstone must, so runs the popular logic, be worth attention; and therefore he now gives to the world a narrative composed five years ago. He informs us that it will be found to be written "in a fresher style" than the story of Coomassie. There is in it, as we interpret his words, a greater aim at literary effect. A good many conversations are described in which English officers say, "Vewy sowwy, ole fellah," and otherwise adopt the dialect familiar to us from the pages of *Punch*. There is even a more or less imaginary Captain Smelfungus, with whom Mr. Stanley travels, and whose marvellous narratives of personal exploits are supposed to give a comic background to the more serious adventures. On the whole, however, we fail to see that one story is much better or much worse told than the other; or, to let out the truth at once, we fail to see that either of them possesses any remarkable merit. Mr. Stanley is undoubtedly a man of energy, and a smart Correspondent. His letters are well up to the average of such performances; he is generally, though not invariably, grammatical, and he does not indulge to an offensive degree in fine writing. He has a high impression of his own merits and of the dignity of a Correspondent's office; and though we cannot point to any definite assertion to that effect, we somehow come to see that, in Mr. Stanley's opinion, Mr. Stanley is one of the most remarkable men of the time.

* *Coomassie and Magdala*. By Henry M. Stanley. London: Sampson Low & Co. 1874.

Such weaknesses are venial in a Correspondent. A buoyant self-confidence is a desirable quality in a man who has to thrust himself into business without any official position, and who is not particularly welcome to those who are more directly concerned in it. The most obvious conclusion to be drawn from the present work is that Sir Garnet Wolseley has a hearty dislike to newspaper Correspondents when considered in the abstract. Whilst proceeding to Africa Mr. Stanley borrowed Sir Garnet's *Soldier's Pocket-Book*, and therein he read that Correspondents are a "curse to modern armies." This unlucky remark evidently rankled in Mr. Stanley's bosom. He recurs to it again and again. He is always indulging in little reflections tending to show the extreme absurdity of the dislike entertained by the professional officer towards the intrusive representatives of the outside world. Sir Garnet, he admits, was personally "most urbane," and deserves a good many compliments, though by no means unmixed compliments, for his military skill. But on this matter Sir Garnet was terribly antiquated in his notions. He did not perhaps share the opinions of a member of his staff who, on Mr. Stanley's suggesting that generals might trust to the honour of a reporter, declared that he would rather trust to the influence of fifty lashes on the reporter's bare back. The alternative is rather disagreeable, but we may observe that, however unimpeachable may be the honour of all newspaper Correspondents, their discretion may not always be equal to their fidelity. A man writing full accounts from an army of all that he has seen which he is not bound in honour to conceal, can hardly fail to give much information which will be valuable to an enemy. We need not pause to inquire whether there are counterbalancing advantages. Mr. Stanley's indignation, however, is natural enough. When a rumour came that a fight was going on at Abracampa, Sir Garnet said nothing of his intention to depart for the scene of action. In this Mr. Stanley can see nothing "commendable"; in other words, he thinks it an act of absurd military pedantry. It takes, as he argues, three weeks for a letter to reach England, and as many more for a newspaper publishing it to return. Therefore the General's sole motive must have been a desire to give the Home Government a monopoly of news. It is not fair, as Mr. Stanley evidently thinks, to have a competitor armed with all official advantages; and he becomes extremely sarcastic when, on a later occasion, Sir Garnet orders a fast steamer to depart for England with a piece of intelligence which he chooses to think important, not being endowed with Mr. Stanley's acute appreciation of native character. Doubtless such things are irritating to the Correspondent's soul. Possibly Sir Garnet may have fancied in the first case that, if he told his plans to Mr. Stanley, they might have leaked out before the return of the newspaper from England; possibly he was merely adhering to a rule; or, possibly, he did not care two straws whether Mr. Stanley had the intelligence or not. The poor public may have had sometimes to wait for a post before receiving some fragment of news, and the *New York Herald* has been deprived of the glory of anticipating the official statements of the Government.

We confess that the evil, whatever it may have been, does not seem to us to have been of a very serious character; but we admit that in one sense Sir Garnet was misguided. If he is anxious for a *vates sacer*, he should be more careful to treat Correspondents in such a way as to flatter their sense of dignity. Mr. Stanley does not actually pass any severe condemnation upon Sir Garnet as a soldier, though he finds fault with several of his arrangements; but he condemns him unreservedly as a diplomatist, and almost always writes about him in a perceptibly querulous tone. One of Sir Garnet's great faults, according to Mr. Stanley, was the neglect to disarm the scattered Ashantees who flocked into Coomassie after the entrance of the British army. Lord Napier, it seems, disarmed the Abyssinians under somewhat analogous circumstances; and Mr. Stanley delights to point out the contrast in notes added to the narrative of the earlier expedition. But then Lord Napier asked Mr. Stanley to dinner. When, again, Sir Garnet writes a despatch a day after leaving Coomassie, giving an account of Captain Butler's expedition, and referring briefly to Captain Glover, of whose expedition he had yet heard next to nothing, Mr. Stanley adds an oddly ungrammatical note:—

It must strike the reader with what exceeding warmth Sir Garnet speaks of his personal friends. . . . Of Captain Butler who, though he possesses many virtues and many social qualities, Sir Garnet speaks as though he had made an unqualified success. But of Captain Glover he has scarcely a civil word. Undoubtedly Sir Garnet makes it clear that he is a man of strong friendships.

The insinuation is obvious. We cannot say whether there is any other ground for it; but the fact that Sir Garnet warmly apologizes for the failure of one subordinate, and explains why he cannot speak of the performance of the other, whose remarkable success was not yet known, surely does not justify an implied charge of gross partiality. Mr. Stanley pays Sir Garnet the necessary compliments; but we could wish that he had remembered his own very sensible remark about the General, that whilst "any man of mortal mould is constantly under the ever-searching and critical eyes of a number of journalists, as he is, no man can escape entirely from blame." Mr. Stanley does not of course really mean that whilst "any man" is being criticized "no man" can be free from blame; but what he is trying to say is true enough. It explains in some measure why men of mortal mould sometimes dislike journalists. But of this we have perhaps said enough. Sir Garnet Wolseley has no more right than any

other man to be free from fair criticism. We shall be quite prepared to listen to any fair discussion of the questions whether he retreated too quickly from Coomassie, whether he ought to have destroyed the Bantamah, whether he was inexorably indifferent to Captain Glover's expedition, and whether he listened too easily to native promises. Mr. Stanley is evidently prepared to condemn him upon these points, though admitting his military talents. But Mr. Stanley certainly fails to impress us with any confidence in his impartiality.

Meanwhile the book may be read with sufficient interest while the memory of the expedition is fresh; and it is not often that newspaper correspondence claims a much longer life. The difficulty of giving permanent value to such work is obvious. The reader at any distance of time requires that full explanation of the plans and conditions of a campaign which it can rarely be in the power of the Correspondent to give. On the other hand, the Correspondent cannot be content simply to record his personal impressions. He is bound to take a bird's-eye view of all that is going on, and hastily to supplement his own eyesight by such stray facts as may luckily drift his way. It is with an effort that he resigns himself to give that prosaic series of observations which is all that one man can generally see of a battle. The Ashantees expedition indeed did not present those bewildering combinations of movements characteristic of war on a great scale which baffle the individual observer. On the other hand, it was rarely, if ever, possible to get any general view of what was going on. All that Mr. Stanley has to describe is a dense mass of African foliage, with occasionally a line of men firing at indefinite puffs of smoke presumably proceeding from Ashantees. No such scene as that of the "thin red line," or of the fight in the grand mountain scenery of Abyssinia, offered materials for graphic writing. Of such chances as he had Mr. Stanley has made respectable use. The battle of Amoaf and the entry into Coomassie are described, not exactly in such a way that we can fancy ourselves to have been there, but still with a fair amount of vivacity. After all, one's first impression on reading almost all such stories is that the writer has omitted to answer precisely the questions which one would have wished to ask; but we do not think that Mr. Stanley makes more errors of this kind than were inevitable, and his book is a fair specimen of the class to which it belongs. He is rather obstinately omniscient, and a little too fond of the attitude of the intelligent American enlightening slow-going Englishmen; but after all he is generally merciful, and recognizes us as deserving people in our way. Indeed it is only right to say that he speaks very heartily of most of the officers whom he has occasion to mention; and, in particular, that he is really enthusiastic about Captain Glover. No doubt that gentleman deserves what Mr. Stanley says of him, and we may take leave of our historian by acknowledging that he is doing good service in calling attention to Captain Glover's distinguished merits.

HYDRAULICS OF GREAT RIVERS.*

OWING to the want of a truly great river in Europe, a large class of problems belonging to the science of hydraulics has been left in comparative darkness. Experiments and calculations have been conducted upon a limited scale, the phenomena themselves not presenting a magnitude of volume or grandeur of aspect to give scope for investigation commensurate with the vastness and complexity of the whole subject; and much of our knowledge of river action or natural drainage has therefore remained vague, empirical, and without either base or system. It is to the magnificent scale on which nature carries on her hydraulics in the New World, and to the enterprise of one of the young and rising communities which have there had their birth, that we are indebted for an undertaking which already sets in a new light many delicate problems connected with the science of hydraulics, and which forms a starting-point for investigations on a scale never before contemplated into the whole subject of the action of rivers. The survey of the giant stream, the Paraná, set on foot by the Argentine Confederation, has been the means of elucidating many of the phenomena and laws of water-motion which little rivers could but shroud in obscurity. The work was begun three years ago on behalf of the Government, as a preliminary step to large engineering works then in contemplation. Little was then known of the mighty system of the La Plata beyond what was laid down in the charts of the British Admiralty. There is moreover much difference between a nautical and an engineering survey, both in their requirements and in their mode of operations. The facts relating to navigation are such as concern the outline and depth of channels, the banks, currents, tides, and winds. To the engineer the currents are of even more importance than to the navigator, whilst he is primarily occupied with the volume of water discharged under the varying conditions of the river, the nature of its bed, and the geological character of the surrounding country. The question of currents had been treated by mathematicians on abstract or *a priori* principles, or on assumptions resting on narrow and imperfect observation. Experiments made with little artificial channels had led even the best authors to lay down certain formulae which they extended to canals and large rivers, covering any discrepancy which might occur between the formula and observed

* *Hydraulics of Great Rivers—the Paraná, the Uruguay, and the La Plata Estuary.* By J. J. Révy, Memb. Inst. C.E., Vienna, &c. 1 vol. folio. London and New York: Spon. 1874.

facts of any kind by the introduction of a new co-efficient. In the hands of scientific engineers the reasonings of mathematicians had been moulded anew under the influence of experiments, with the result that, the gulf between theory and observation widening with the scale of application, there came to be almost as many co-efficients and constants introduced as there were engineers engaged upon the formulæ. Not less widely apart were the conclusions practically arrived at. One author would conclude that the velocity of a current ought to decrease from the surface downwards as the ordinates of a parabola having a vertical axis and its apex at the bottom of the river; another, that the current ought to decrease as the abscissæ of a parabola with a horizontal axis, the vertex of the parabola being at the surface. With other authors the law of decrease is made elliptic, or as one of the conic sections; with some, even straight line. The calculations of Prony better suited small rivers; those of Eytelwein larger rivers. Those of D'Aubisson and Defontaine were far apart from the masterly work of Du Batat. All these uncertainties and discrepancies became magnified as the formulæ were extended to larger and larger rivers. On facing the stupendous problem opened to them by the survey of the La Plata and its affluents, the largest river system in the world next to that of the Amazon and the Oby, the engineers took the wise and safe course of assuming that nothing was known about great rivers at all. All their information was to be derived from observation and study of the rivers themselves.

Recent proceedings in the Court of Chancery have made public the fact that the post of Engineer-in-Chief to the La Plata Survey was held by Mr. Bateman, C.E., by whom a motion was made in the Court of Vice-Chancellor Malins for an injunction to restrain the publication of M. Révy's book, on the ground of a prior right to the facts and observations from which it is made up. Into the merits of Mr. Bateman's motion, which was disallowed by the judge, we forbear to enter, referring our readers to the remarks of the Vice-Chancellor in reference to it. What concerns us is the valuable mass of information resulting from the survey itself, and embodied in the handsome and ably-written volume before us. Avoiding analytical formulæ, the writer is content to set out the results of these various observations in terms which involve only the most rudimentary knowledge of figures. What we have most to complain of is this want of anything like an attempt at a mathematical expression or even a methodical generalization of the facts observed and tabulated. There are materials of great value for raising the science of river hydraulics into an edifice, but they remain for the most part disjointed and rough-hewn. Little or no amends are made to mathematicians, whose labours have been somewhat brusquely swept aside, by the substitution of formulas of superior accuracy and breadth. Not a few points of great importance have, however, been sufficiently made good to form solid ground for future progress. It has been shown with what ease and certainty the section of the widest and deepest river can be taken. Within two hours and sixteen minutes the cross section of the Paraná, in a line drawn at Rosario to the opposite shore of Entre Ríos, was successfully carried out. A line calculated from a base of three thousand feet was marked out by flags on either shore, a floating raft, moored in the middle of the stream, indicating the same line by a flag. A steamer, the crew being previously well trained, was taken alternately up and down stream across the marked line, which the pocket sextant enabled the captain to keep with perfect ease, and careful soundings were taken in transit. We are not told the precise number of soundings, but the result is a very exact outline of the profile of the river-bed (Plate V.), the greatest depth being 73 ft. 1 in., near the right, or Santa Fé, bank. The centre of gravity of the section is readily deduced. The same plate exhibits the section of the Uruguay similarly taken at Salto, with that of the Mississippi at Vicksburg, and the Danube at Vienna, for comparison. To heighten the contrast our poor little thread of a stream at Thames Ditton makes the majestic volume of the Paraná more manifest to the eye.

More complex and difficult is the determination of the currents in a river of this magnitude. Here the simple instruments in use in operations on a small scale utterly fail. The necessary apparatus had in this case been heedfully prepared beforehand, and brought out from London. The improved current-meter, described at greater length in the Appendix, its construction and mode of use being made clear by diagrams (Plate VIII.), is based upon the same principle as the patent log. It is to the hydraulic engineer what the chronometer is to the navigator, and is as superior to the meter previously in use as is a chronometer to a common Geneva watch. A fan-screw of the ordinary propeller shape, but four inches only in diameter across the blades, is made to revolve with the current. On its axis there is a fine thread working in two worm-wheels, each of three inches diameter, each wheel containing a great number of teeth, and one of the wheels having one tooth more than the other. Each revolution of the screw, the axis being firmly set in the framework of the apparatus, makes the wheels move the distance of one tooth, and by the time the first wheel has made a complete revolution, corresponding to twenty-two revolutions of the screw, the second wheel has gained one tooth. By means of indexes it is easy to read off the total number of revolutions of the screw, and by computation based upon experiment to arrive at the rate of velocity of the current. In shallow water, where the apparatus can be attached to a rod, its application is easy enough. At depths approaching one hundred feet a difficulty was of course felt, which was in this instance overcome, after one or

two failures, with great ingenuity. The apparatus was attached to an iron bar nine feet long with an eye at each end. Through each of these eyes a rope was rove, whereby the machine was lowered by two sailors from a boat anchored in the stream, the ropes being kept vertical, and the bar horizontal, at any depth from time to time required. All that was needful was that the apparatus should be kept at the same level during an operation. The operators were now no more limited by depth or velocity. They could practically go to any depth and register any current. Another great advantage was that they could integrate all the currents from the surface downwards in a vertical plane, and so find the absolute mean of all the different currents under the point of section, the point being mathematically correct independently of speculation or empirical adjustment, the limit of error being that of the working of the instrument, which it is for the engineer to look to and to take into account like the error of a chronometer. The instrument could be lowered out of gear, and thrown into gear, by pulling a wire at the instant of beginning an observation, the average duration of which was about five minutes. Calm weather was essential to accuracy, at least on large rivers, and in tidal rivers observations should only be taken near high and low water. For a large river or an estuary with a variable current, usually due to the effect of tides, a permanent observatory should be moored at a convenient point on the line of section in the deeper part of the river.

The first series of observations recorded by M. Révy were on the La Plata or River Plate, the great estuary which, from being always kept full of fresh water by the flood of the Paraná and the Uruguay, is called a river, although it has no drainage of its own nor at all the form of a river. It is, in fact, a large shallow basin, which at one time reached 200 miles higher up and terminated in long. $60^{\circ} 35' W.$, lat. $32^{\circ} 4' S.$, at a point now called Diamante, where the delta of the Paraná commences. It is now about 125 miles long, and at its narrowest 23 miles wide and 63 at its mouth. Its depth is about 18 ft. on the average at low water, nowhere exceeding 36 ft. Its waters are found to hold in suspension about 1-10,000th part by weight of solid matter, which being deposited at each turn of the tide, gives rise to banks and islands destined, as observation surely proves, at some distant time, by reason of the law of currents, to unite in continuous banks, when the Plate will be no more. It will be merged in the Paraná, the mouth of which will be where now the Plate terminates in the sea, forming a delta like that of the Mississippi, the Palmas and Guazú branches extending beyond Monte Video. The existence of tides in the Plate was for the first time established by these observations. The tidal wave was in fact traced a hundred miles up both the Paraná and the Uruguay. The influence of the wind, to which all rise and fall in the surface of the water had been heretofore attributed, is considerable, varying with the force and direction of the wind, but the gauge-observations (tailed in Plates II. and III.) indicate a regular tidal oscillation corresponding to the age of the moon. The highest point touched by the gauge is 8 ft. 7 in.; ordinary low water at Buenos Ayres marking 3 ft. 4 in. below the mean level, and spring tides lowering the surface another foot or so. But the influence of storms is traceable in all extreme figures. Thus a heavy storm on the 19th of January, 1870, banked up the water to the extent of fifty inches above ordinary low-tide level, producing a kind of revolution in the territory of these streams, and for a hundred miles up its course reversing the current of the mighty Paraná. The currents of the Plate are by no means those of an ordinary river, affected as they are by the two great streams which run into it by manifold mouths, as well as by the tides which meet it at its embouchure into the ocean. Plates II. and III. exhibit the results of meter observations on both the Plate and the Paraná, showing their variable velocities, and correlating them with the tidal wave. Taking as a test instance December 30, 1870, we find the velocity at the surface 108 ft. per minute, at 4 feet below it 95 ft. 2 in., at 7 feet 84 ft. 11 in., at 10 feet 77 ft. 1 in., at 16 feet 58 ft. 8 in., and at 1 foot from the bottom, 35 ft. 0 in., the river depth being 24 feet. The mean current observed by the integrator, midway between the surface and the bed, was 83 ft. 0 in. per minute. The mean fall of the Plate on the same day was 0.388 in. per mile, reduced by ebb to 0.342 in., the maximum 0.444 in. On the Paraná stronger currents prevail, the velocity 4 ft. below the surface being in one observation, January 18, 206 ft. 7 in., and the mean from bank to bank 126 ft. 8 in. The Uruguay, on the 3rd of February, showed a velocity at the Salto section of not less than 333 ft. 1 in. The curves in these diagrams are drawn in a vertical plane on the river sections for easy comparison of the form of section with the outline of surface currents. The constant relation of depth to velocity is one of the most important results of these observations. Nowhere is this connexion more conspicuous than in the case of the Uruguay. At times a mighty river rivalling in volume the Paraná, having a drainage area of 200,000 square miles, at others it sinks into comparative insignificance, its whole volume during December being reduced about two miles below Salto, within a rocky channel called the Corralito, 145 ft. in width, to a depth of water of 6 ft., with a current of about five miles an hour. The Corralito was submerged by the great rise when the surveying party was there. About nine miles above the town of Salto are the great falls of the Uruguay, affecting the periodical rise and fall of the stream and, in consequence, the navigation. A succession of reefs cross its channel, which is here a mile and a-half wide, in a diagonal line. When the river is low there is a difference of level between the waters above and below the falls of twenty-five feet. Any attempt to remove these obstacles

to navigation, or those of the Salto Chico Falls eight miles lower down, seems all but impossible. On a scale far more stupendous are the Guaira Falls of the Paraná, which were unfortunately not visited by our engineers, but which, as we are told in a glowing report to the Dictator of Paraguay, can be heard thirty miles off, their thunder being so loud that within a mile no voice can be heard, and the neighbouring settlements have had to be abandoned, the entire population becoming deaf.

M. Révy's narrative is enlivened from time to time by graphic and picturesque notices of the scenery, the general physical features, and the natural products of the country, which forms part of the vast tertiary sheet, the largest in the world, extending east and west from the Andes to the Atlantic, and north and south from the mountains of Brazil to the Strait of Magellan. His descriptive powers are shown in particular in the account of a dust storm which burst upon the party upon the Pavon one afternoon, after the thermometer had stood above 105° Fahr. in the shade. "The Andes seemed rushing upon them at express speed, in the form of clouds whose outline was hard and defined like those of cumuli, yet not rounded," threatening to bury the insignificant river-steamer *Aquila* and crew among the "boulders" of their outskirts. Before the tempest broke in a deluge of rain, the *Aquila*'s deck and the whole land were covered with a deposit of fine impalpable clay, a tenth of an inch thick. At this crisis, when nothing could be heard but the roaring of the storm, total darkness prevailed for five or six minutes, the last thing seen being the "boulders" floating about fifty feet above the ground, just burying the tops of small trees. The clouds themselves, instead of floating a mile or two above the ground, were touching it, whilst a "number of straight projections, elevations, and ridges of a dark-brown and gray colour reached from the earth to the towering height of quite three miles." We should like to be assured that M. Révy's estimates of heights above ground rested on data as carefully observed as those of the waters under the earth. In the proper department of the survey there can be no doubt that a most valuable addition has been made to the science of hydraulics, and, to whomsoever the credit may be primarily due, the volume before us serves to mark a new and important stage in the work of river-surveying.

HALF A LIFE.*

DR. DASENT, speaking, let us suppose, in the character of Frank Franklin, the hero and narrator of *Half a Life*, ushers his book into the world with the statement that he writes it "because every life, and any part of it, if truly and faithfully described, must be full of interest to every thinking being." And in the next sentence the author observes, "As for amusement, perhaps if you wait you will find this account of my life quite amusing enough, even for the most thoughtless among you." It will be seen that the former of these announcements leaves no room for the possibility of Frank Franklin's adventures as told by Mr. Dasent appearing anything other than a true and faithful description of life. From the latter it is evident that any one who does not find a sufficiency of amusement in these adventures, any one whose faculties cannot bear the strain of investigating their humour, must rank lower even than "the most thoughtless"—must indeed be classed among the imbeciles of the world. Yet we must confess that, having read *Half a Life*, we cannot but regret that Dr. Dasent, whose translation and narration of Norse legends are certainly first-rate in their way, should have departed from that way and cast in his lot with the crowd of ephemeral novelists. The subject with which he has chosen to occupy a considerable part of his book, that of school-life, is one of the most difficult with which a writer can deal. It may be in its difficulty that the fascination lies which has led so many writers to attempt it; or perhaps this is occasioned rather by a not uncommon kind of vanity, which leads a man to pride himself on the hearty boyish spirit which he supposes himself to have sustained throughout and in spite of all the cares and anxieties of his manhood. However that may be, out of many attempts to give a good and true picture of English school life, only one—*Tom Brown's School Days*—has commanded or merited any lasting attention. The boys in that book were like real boys collectively, and each one had an individual and well-marked character. It is hard to get up any interest in boys like those described as inhabiting Westminster in the pages of Dr. Dasent's book. There is no real character in any one of them, and they all talk with a peculiar flippant smartness which after a little time is indescribably wearisome. This, however, is not confined to the Westminster boys; there is a singular likeness in the thoughts and speech of all the people whom the author introduces into his pages. One is reminded by them of the Italian marionette theatres, where one voice serves alike for hero and heroine, ruffian and prince; where the influence of the same guiding hand is plainly recognized in the wooden actions of various puppets. One of these puppets at Westminster, to whom the name of George Irwin is given, commands, or is supposed to command, a surpassing share of the reader's attention and admiration. If his character as expressed in words and deeds had the most shadowy resemblance to the description given of it, one would be most glad to have the opportunity of studying so admirable a person's sayings and doings. But the

author seems to think that, having labelled this paragon with every known virtue, he has done his duty by him, and may leave him to shift for himself as an apparently very commonplace young man. It is good for a writer to leave something to the imagination of his readers to supply; it amuses their vanity and saves him from becoming wearisome by too much insistence on his meaning. The practice may, however, be carried too far; Dr. Dasent has in the matter of George Irwin left everything for his readers to supply, and to do this is to make too large a demand upon their will and power to assist him. He must be credited with a certain amount of originality in keeping Frank Franklin for a long time out of the meshes of love-making, which are apt no doubt to be tiresome in novels, by dint of filling his mind and absorbing his energies with friendship for Irwin. Unfortunately the friendship is quite as tiresome as the love-making could be. Here is a specimen of the talk which goes on between the two friends. Irwin has just arrived to take up his abode at Oxford, whether his Pythias has preceded him, and he is loitering over the shops in the High on the way to his rooms, wishing to buy prints for his bedroom:—

"Wait till you see your bedroom," I said, and then I coaxed him to come on, and leave the shop.

"Yes," he said, "there is a time for all things, and it certainly is not the time to buy lithographs, however good, the very moment one has jumped off a coach on the first day of residence at Oxford. Tell me, old fellow, how do you feel?"

"So lonely till you came. I could have sat down and cried; but all is changed since you came. How happy we shall be together!"

"Of course we shall," cried Irwin. "Do you know I have often thought of what that dear Mr. Chrysostom said, and of his story and the riddle of life, and yet, though it might have made me melancholy to reflect how many chances we have against us, and how very wretched we may be, yet what he said of the transitory nature of life, and of its only being one part of a much longer existence, has made me, on the whole, much happier. What we have both got to do is to trust in God, and then bear whatever befalls us with a stout heart."

I suppose he expected me to say something, but I only mused on what he said, and so he went on—

"Well, it is rather hard to moralize on one's way from the coach to one's new rooms. And yet, after all, this passing and transit from the old Irwin, the Westminster boy, to the new Irwin, the Oxford man, is very like that passage from an inferior life here to that happy state to which we believe the good shall be translated in a moment, ay, in the twinkling of an eye."

It was so absurd to me to compare the miserable rooms to which I was hurrying him with the mansions of the blest, that I burst out laughing, much to Irwin's disgust.

"That you call friendship, because when I make a profound speculation, and treat you to it in the street, like one of the old peripatetics, you unearnest fellow, you burst out laughing, as if the Kingdom of Heaven and the consideration of it were any laughing matter."

"All I say in self-defence is what one of the old sages would have said, and if there is any truth in history, did say: 'Respic finem'—Consider the end.' Wait and see what your rooms are like before you compare them to the Kingdom of Heaven."

By this time we were in Tom Quad, and cutting diagonally across it to pass out at the entrance by the hall staircase, and so on, keeping to the right to the little quadrangle in which "Chaplains" stood.

"The way to the gate of life is dark and slippery," murmured Irwin, "and so it is here, that's one likeness," as we crossed the narrow space.

If in other respects Irwin appears a commonplace young man, it must certainly be admitted that as a prig he rises to remarkable eminence. One cannot help hoping that Dr. Dasent has not been so unfortunate in his experience of young men and their relations and conversations with each other as this passage might lead one to suppose. There is something almost monstrous in the idea of two undergraduates being impressed with such vapid, mawkish ideas and interchanging them in such vapid, mawkish words as these on their entry into University life. One is inclined to think that they must have studied the behaviour of the undergraduates in *Julian Home*, and, having fashioned their own upon it, succeeded in surpassing their models. That part of the half of Frank Franklin's life which is spent at Oxford is neither more interesting nor more natural than that which is passed at Westminster; the chief event which occurs during it is the death of Irwin by a fall from his horse just at the time when he is about to distinguish himself in his "Great Go." The spirit in which he is represented as regarding this examination, and the expressions which he uses concerning it, are of a strange kind. Probably the following passage was written with the view of inculcating the advantages to be derived from a due exercise of piety in everyday affairs; one cannot suppose that the effect which it produces of reducing religion to the merest bathos was intentional:—

"Now, do you know, this examination seems to me very like the day of judgment; we shall be all right if we don't incur the anger of the examiners, but who can say if they may not be as fallible as the ancient gods, and be governed by crotchetts and caprice? For myself, if they were as God I should not fear. For in His hands, with all my sins and weaknesses, which are manifold, I should feel safe. And as He rules the hearts of the examiners, I seem to have firm assurance that all will be well, and that we shall, at least, not disgrace ourselves. And now good-night. For myself, I have cast away all care. This, too, like everything in life, is in the hand of God."

Little has been said of the home life depicted in Dr. Dasent's book; but in truth there is little to say. There is no plot, and no pretension to a plot; one would say that the book was intended to be a series of brilliant sketches of life and manners as they were a few years ago; and no doubt it is a series of sketches. But a writer must prove that he possesses very great powers before he can afford to throw away the so-called trammels of art, which are not really trammels so much as supports to stay the wavering and uncertain steps of those who have not the strength to make a road for themselves, and keep their footsteps in the path which

* *Half a Life*. By George Webbe Dasent, D.C.L., Author of "Annals of an Eventful Life," "Three to One," &c. 3 vols. Chapman & Hall. 1874.

time has proved to be the safest. The only novels of the present day which, in spite of having no plot properly so-called, rank high among works of fiction, are those of M. Tourguenéff. Even they, brilliant, true, biting as they are, sometimes leave behind them an after-taste, as it were, of incoherence and want of due connexion; and Mr. Dasent's work will hardly bear comparison with M. Tourguenéff's. As the friend who has while living entirely filled Frank Franklin's heart and mind expires in the second volume, it is not surprising to find that the interest of love, delayed so much longer than usual, should be found a necessary ingredient in the inevitable third. That part of the last volume which is not taken up by this interest is mostly occupied with tales told to Frank and the girl to whom he is afterwards engaged, by an old man, half-gardener, half-ploughman, belonging to Mrs. Franklin's estate—tales for the most part of charms and witchcraft. So constant a demand is made upon this old man's talent for narration that it would be surprising if all his stories were new. Still one is scarcely prepared, even under these circumstances, to find the story of Lady Godiva related as a little-known legend. Thus it would seem as if the love-making were an agreeable relief to the story-telling; but it is hardly too much to say that any amount of stories of any age would be more tolerable than the kind of love-making which occurs. Another of Dr. Dasent's books, *Three to One*, was disfigured by certain love scenes in which the ordinary order of things was reversed, and the courtship was entirely on the woman's side. In that case, however, the woman who adopted this curious method was a widow of the *rusé* type; consequently, the manner in which affairs were conducted was less unpleasant there than here, where the love is made by a girl who, by dint of saying very little and being always highly spoken of, has up to that time secured more of the reader's sympathy than any one else in the book. Here, however, is a scene in which she makes a declaration to Frank which entirely robes her of all attraction:—

"I dare say," she said, "when we had got quite down into the hollow between the hills and stood under our favourite butt—" "I dare say, Frank, you think me a very strange, wayward creature."

"Yes, I do, Mary," I said; "I can't at all understand what has come over you, or, I might say, entered into you lately. It seems the same Mary in form and look and face, but another Mary in word and thought."

Mary Ball looked hard at me for a moment or two, and her lips quivered a little and her eyes flashed, and she said,

"Suppose I were to say that I saw a change in you, and that you were not the same Frank."

"Then I should say you were quite wrong," I cried, "for I am still the same Frank you always knew."

"No, you are not—not at all the same," said Mary; "I see it quite plainly."

"Tell me what you see."

"I see many things," said Mary, in a dreamy way; "but what I see most clearly of all is that your heart has risen from the dead, and that it is no longer buried with Irwin."

"And how do you know that?" I cried.

"Because—because"—she said slowly and softly—"because mine too has risen from the dead, and it rose as soon as it found that the place your heart had so long filled was empty."

"Mary," I said, "you are right. I have felt that there was but one thing on earth that could comfort me for Irwin's loss—the love of woman. I love you now—I feel it, but you know you said long ago that your heart was buried with Irwin."

"Frank," she said, "don't mistake me again. I only said I loved him because I knew you loved him, and I wished to love everything that you loved. When he died your heart went down into the grave with him, and mine followed it like a mourner at a funeral. Now, yours has risen and mine has risen with it. Irwin, too, has risen; his spirit dwells with us in all its purity."

After this she explains to him that she carefully held him up to ridicule in another girl's eyes the day before, in order that she might the more surely keep him to herself, and after that the author says to the reader, "There, now you have heard enough." In this we are disposed altogether to agree with him. Although the hero's last words are to the effect that Mary "was and is all in all to him," it is difficult to feel much sorrow for him when they are separated in consequence of her father's ruin, wherein also Frank himself is involved. Besides sins against good taste with which the last volume abounds, there are very many lesser sins of carelessness and hurry all through *Half a Life*. The fact of a writer having a certain name and reputation should lead him to exercise greater rather than less care; Dr. Dasent does not think so, however, to judge from the writing of this book. For instance, he gives an elaborate description of two separate games of hockey in which the hero joins on two different occasions after his arrival at Westminster, and says of each of them that it was his first game of hockey. Worse than this, however, especially from a supposed Westminster boy, is such a misquotation as,

Raro antecedentem scelestum,
Deseruit parva pede claudo.

It is probably true for once that "every schoolboy knows" this to be a horribly false scansion. One cannot but be sorry that an author of so much merited repute in some directions as Dr. Dasent should have written such stuff as *Half a Life*.

COLEBROOKE'S ESSAYS.*

OF Colebrooke's life and of his work generally we have said something on a former occasion.† In these two volumes of

* *Miscellaneous Essays*, by H. T. Colebrooke. With Life of the Author, by his Son, Sir T. E. Colebrooke. Vols. II. and III. *Miscellaneous Essays*. London: Trübner & Co. 1873.

† *Saturday Review*, April 26, 1873.

his Essays are brought together the results of that work, which have been thus far scattered in the *Asiatic Researches*, the Transactions of the Asiatic Society, or in prefaces to books sealed to all except Oriental scholars. In singular contrast to the multitude of "miscellaneous" papers poured out upon the world, these volumes form an astonishing monument of patient, clear-sighted, and accurate learning—a learning which cannot indeed be said to dress itself in the most attractive forms, but which presents a vast quarry for diggers endowed with something like the perseverance and enthusiasm of the author. It would no doubt have been better if with his wonderful powers of research and clearness of arrangement Colebrooke had combined a little of that imagination which can light up the hardest and driest matters as with a living fire; but, in the midst of the complicated details of subjects in themselves singularly intricate, we are made constantly to feel that the explorer is fully alive to the bearings of his researches on the knowledge, the philosophy, and the social life of the European world. There is little or nothing here to attract the so-called general reader; but the scholar whose work has never carried him specially to the history or the literature of India will not feel, as he searches these pages, that he is in a wholly new land. He will even be startled to see how clearly, more than half a century ago, Colebrooke, addressing the first general meeting of the Asiatic Society, laid down the relations of Eastern with Western thought, and insisted on the connexion of Greek philosophy with that of India:—

Whichever is the type or the copy, whichever has borrowed or has lent, certain it is that the one will serve to elucidate the other. The philosophy of India may be employed for a commentary on that of Greece; and, conversely, Grecian philosophy will help to explain Indian.

He was speaking at a time when the sciences of comparative grammar and comparative mythology could scarcely be said to exist; and we cannot therefore be surprised at the greater diffidence with which he claims that mythology should be studied chiefly as illustrating the history of the aberrations of the human mind, and that the Sanskrit language should be carefully analysed with the expectation that it will be found "to contribute something to the elucidation of Greek and other European languages." But even here we have the sagacity of the true philosopher in the assertion that "the analysis of language in general, which has been unsuccessfully attempted on too narrow ground, may be prosecuted with effect upon wider induction."

His own researches extend practically over the whole of the enormous field of ancient and modern Hindu literature, science, philosophy, and law. Among the papers, all of them elaborated with the same exhaustive care, we have essays on the Vedas; on the religious ceremonies of the Brahmans; on the Sankhya, Nyaya, and Vaisheshika systems of philosophy; on many of the Indian and Mohammedan sects and their doctrines; on Indian courts of justice; on Hindu weights and measures; on the Sanskrit and Prakrit languages, and on their poetry; on Indian and Arabian divisions of the Zodiac; and, among many others, on Hindu astronomy and algebra. Of these subjects some have been more fully treated by more recent scholars and workers, while many of the books which the readers whom he addressed fifty years ago could know only by name or by description have now been printed in the original, and in part translated and illustrated. Yet even in those subjects which have been most thoroughly handled Colebrooke's Essays have lost neither their interest nor their value. All contain a large amount of matter not to be found elsewhere, and on points which still involve questions of controversy his judgment comes with undiminished weight.

Among the most prominent of these questions, the student who finds the fact forced upon him as he wades even through the cumbersome mythology of the Puranas will welcome his emphatic vindication of the real monotheism of the Rig Veda, and of the schools of philosophy founded upon it. The deities of these, the oldest books perhaps in the world, may bear a hundred names, and of these names every one may have given birth to a hundred uncouth conceptions and stories; but in Colebrooke's belief they "are all resolvable into different titles of three deities, and ultimately of one God." If any doubts could be entertained by those who compare the phrases applied to Brahma, Mitra, or Varuna, with those which are addressed to Indra, Mahadeva, or Vishnu, they would be set at rest by the following passage:—

The deities are only three, whose places are the earth, the intermediate region, and heaven—namely, fire, air, and the sun. They are pronounced to be (the deities) of the mysterious names severally, and (Prajapati) the lord of creatures is (the deity) of them collectively. The syllable Om intends every deity: it belongs to (Parameshti) him who dwells in the supreme abode; it appertains to (Brahma) the vast one; to (Deva) God; to (Adhyatma) the superintending soul. Other deities belonging to those several regions are portions of the (three) gods, for they are variously named and described on account of their different operations; but, in fact, there is only one deity, the GREAT SOUL (mahan atma).

Colebrooke concludes that "the ancient Hindu religion, as founded on the Indian scriptures, recognized but one God, yet not sufficiently discriminating the creature from the creator" (i. 23). The remark is one which must never be forgotten in the study of Indian philosophy; yet any one must be wilfully blind who fails to see that this monotheism is in no way weakened by the concrete images which exhibit this Great Soul as drawing from the waters, and framing, an embodied being, from whose mouth, opened as an egg, speech issued, and from speech fire, while from the nostrils breath passed and air was propagated; from his skin rose hair, and from this the foliage of herbs and trees; while, further, the breast opened, to send forth mind, and from mind came the

moon; from his navel deglutition, and from deglutition death. At a first glance we might be tempted to dismiss all this, and much more which follows it, as mere puerility; but we should be only refusing to look upon the foundations of an elaborate system of philosophy, laid with the greatest care and with the most subtle arrangement of its parts, and, moreover, of a philosophy which deals with problems now occupying most prominently the thought of Europe, and which solves many of them by methods and with results scarcely to be distinguished from those of certain schools of no small pretensions to something like infallible wisdom and absolute authority.

The great defect of Indian as of Greek philosophy was its subservience to words, as though words were things. It is a trite remark to say nowadays that this verbalism must impress itself upon, if it does not domineer over, the systems of men who know no language but their own. These chains were riveted at a very early time round the thinkers of India. If we mark what is said about the soul as intelligence or the faculty of apprehension (i. 46), we shall not be surprised to find one school of the Sankhya philosophy denying the existence of a maker or ruler of things prior to creation, and asserting "that there is no proof of God's existence, unperceived by the senses, nor inferred from reasoning, nor yet revealed." The philosophy of Iswara acknowledges an absolute intelligence which is the source of all individual intelligences and the origin of other existences successively evolved and developed. Yet this being is himself the result of development, and must come to an end with its consummation. The existence of any other creator he rejects utterly, his reasoning being clinched with the following argument:—

Detached from nature, unaffected therefore by consciousness and the rest of nature's trammels, he could have no inducement to creation; fettered by nature, he could not be capable of creation. Guidance requires proximity, as the iron is attracted by the magnet; and in like manner it is by proximity that living souls govern individual bodies, enlightened by animation as hot iron is by heat.—I. 264:

This seemingly elaborate reasoning resolves itself ultimately into the confession of our inability to form conceptions except through impressions made on our senses, and from this inability it infers a general impossibility, thus leaving the ultimate cause of development or evolution with no better solution than that of a great mundane egg which creates itself. The philosophy thus brought into existence dealt very freely with the books for which it claimed the sanctity of divine revelation. Its own remedy for all earthly evils was abstraction from the bonds of matter. The means to this end—that is, to happiness—was meditation; according to the precepts of the Veda the road lay through a series of outward ceremonies, and it was so much the worse for the Veda. The method prescribed by revelation was not pure, for it was attended with the slaughter of animals, which, if not actually sinful, was at least not harmless; and if a particular precept enjoined the slaying of the sacrificial victim, a general maxim forbade the hurting of any sentient being. But further, the method was defective, since even the gods, Indra and the rest, perish at the appointed period, and it was excessive, in so far as by it the happiness of one is made a source of unhappiness to another (i. 252).

With such a foundation for the transcendental systems of thought, it is not surprising that the popular systems should run out into a wild growth of verbalism, this verbalism making itself felt by a multiplication of ceremonies which laid on all who were subjected to them an appalling and intolerable slavery. Nowhere can we escape from that fearful power of words which has exercised a mighty influence on the scholastic theology of Catholic Europe. Under this system the phrases and hymns of the Veda become magical incantations, or spells which can compel the deity to grant the spiritual grace for which the suppliant prays. Nay, the supreme act or series of acts which are regarded by the philosophers as the promptest mode of attaining beatitude, and which constitute devotion to God, consist in repeated mutterings of his mystical name, the syllable *Om*, at the same time meditating its significance (i. 263). When such is the "efficacious devotion" of the most advanced, we cannot be surprised if the Veda itself should be treated with the veneration paid to the image which fell down from Jupiter, and honoured by recitation "in various superstitious modes, word by word, either simply disjoining them, or else repeating the words alternately, backwards and forwards, once or oftener. Copies of the Rig Veda and Yajur . . . are prepared for these and other modes of recital, and are called *Pada, Krama*, &c. Few things happily are absolutely without use; and such practices as these obviously reduce to a minimum, as Colebrooke has strongly insisted, the possibility of corruption and interpolation in the Vedic text. Of the general genuineness of this text we can have not the least doubt; that there has been here and there a slight tampering with words, and with fatal results deliberately contemplated, has been clearly shown by Professor Max Müller in the instance of the passage which enjoins on widows the duty of following their husbands through the funeral fires to the paradise which lies beyond. But it is at least possible that these changes, infinitesimally slight in their extent, although deadly in their effects, may have been made before the fully developed sacerdotalism of the Brahmins devised these ingenious modes of paying honour to their sacred books.

Not less oppressive are the mere classifications of the Sankhya and other philosophical systems of the Hindus. When we are told that the intellectual creation is liable to suffer through four classes of afflictions numbering in all fifty; that there are five obstructions of the intellect, beginning with obscurity and going on

through illusion, extreme illusion, and gloom into utter darkness; and that these five are subdivided into sixty-two sorts, error (or obscurity) and illusion comprising each eight species, extreme illusion ten, while gloom and utter darkness have each eighteen divisions—we may well turn with a feeling of indescribable refreshment to the hymn spoken by Vâch (voice or speech) in praise of herself as the supreme and universal soul:—

I uphold both the sun and the moon, the firmament, and fire. . . . Me, who am the queen, the conferer of wealth, the possessor of knowledge, and first of such as merit worship, the gods render universally present everywhere, and pervaude of all things. . . . I make strong whom I choose, I make him holy and wise. . . . I pervade heaven and earth. I bore the father on the head of this (universal mind), and my origin is in the midst of the ocean; therefore do I pervade all beings, and touch this heaven with my form. Originating all beings, I pass like the breeze; I am above this heaven, beyond this earth; and what is the great one, that am I.

It is remarkable that Colebrooke, in quoting this hymn, should not notice its striking likeness to the still more magnificent eulogy which the writer of Ecclesiasticus places in the mouth of the Divine Wisdom, who declares that she encompasses the clouds and walks in the bottom of the deep, that she came forth from the mouth of the Most High, and that she shall never fail. The comparison seems to lay open one of the many tracks of investigation suggested by these Essays. Our gleanings have been confined to a few pages, and can give but a faint idea of the harvest to be reaped from the whole field explored with unwearied toil by a thinker whose memory must be cherished by his countrymen with legitimate pride.

BYGONE DAYS IN DEVON AND CORNWALL.*

ANY attempt to illustrate the customs and traditions of the "West Countree" is sure to possess more or less interest, and it is courageous of Mrs. Whitcombe to venture upon a field one half of which has sufficed for Mr. Hawker and Mr. Bottrell. We must say, however, that, while she attempts more than they have done, she has performed less, and leaves the reader in an unsatisfied condition at the end of his task. Mrs. Whitcombe is apt to be inconsecutive; she does not seem to understand the difference between what is curious and what is trivial; and, besides lack of research, which lands her in curious mis-statements, she has a way of leaving a story or legend unfinished and an inference or moral unpointed. In her Cornish pages she goes over the same ground as several able predecessors, and exhibits by contrast her incapacity to discriminate what is noteworthy. In those which relate to Devonshire, where the field has been less worked, she has yielded to an inclination to "chronicle small beer" which curtails her space for what is really of interest. Thus a page is taken up with adages about the luck that will follow a child according to the day of the week on which it was born—adages not specially local, and certainly too trite to need repetition; she reproduces from Western the statement that "Julius Caesar spent some time at Lydford" (at the head of Dartmoor Forest) "on his second arrival in England"—a statement not more worthy to be accepted as history than the legend that at Lydford Castle Judge Jeffreys reappears at intervals in the shape of a black pig; and though she can laugh at the local derivation of Marazion, or Market-Jew, from the first tanners, who are supposed to have been of the kin of Judas Iscariot, she quotes with approval a manuscript history of Lostwithiel which accounts for its name by the supposition of an earthquake that swallowed up the elder city, of which Lostwithiel or "Lost-with-all" commemorates the disaster. Add to this a good deal of crudeness and defective arrangement in many parts of the volume; for example, in the case of the legends of Tavistock, which are given in a very confused fashion. First we have the anecdote of Prince Charles's visit to the town in 1645, when the incessant wet so annoyed him that ever after, when any one said "it was a fine day," he rejoined that "it was sure to be raining at Tavistock." Seeing that 1645 was the year of Naseby, and but four years before the execution of Charles I., the probabilities are that any small joke about Tavistock weather would soon have been effaced from the mind of the Prince; and that the story is as apocryphal as it certainly is trivial. From Charles II. Mrs. Whitcombe skips back seven centuries to Ordgar, Duke of Devon, founder of Tavistock Abbey in A.D. 961; and from this, we should have thought, prehistoric Duke she flies off to Betty Grimshaw, a young woman murdered in the grounds of Tavistock Vicarage, from whom it is an easy leap back to a nameless Abbot who was drowned in the river Tavy, near the Abbot's Weir. To say nothing of graver faults in the notice of Johanna Southcott, these hops and skips seem to prove that Mrs. Whitcombe's chronology is somewhat inconsecutive.

Notwithstanding these defects, however, *Bygone Days* is not wanting in interest. Mrs. Whitcombe's plan is to divide into three sections, under the heads of "Superstitions," "Customs," and "Legends," such matter as she has collected about each of the counties. Neither of them, in truth, can be said to have allowed the march of intellect to rob them of whatever credit attaches to a well-cherished faith in the darkest and most old-world superstitions. Mrs. Whitcombe's story of the farmer's wife near Launceston, whose pig was "over-looked" by a witch, and who had her revenge, through the aid of a white magician, is a melancholy example of West country ignorance

* *Bygone Days in Devon and Cornwall; with Notes of existing Superstitions and Customs.* By Mrs. Henry Pennell Whitcombe. London: Richard Bentley & Son. 1874.

and superstition; and we should hardly have credited it had we not read Mr. Bottrell's account of "Tom Trenoweth's bewitched sow." No doubt there are some who have a vested interest in the maintenance of this worse than Egyptian darkness—the "Wizards," so called, who make a profit out of charms which, to judge from a specimen or two quoted by our author from Mrs. Bray, outvie in garbling of Scripture the fabulous cross-answers of Oxford undergraduates in the *Art of Pluck*. Such a wizard was a certain "Old Baker," to whom, when he had in the early part of this century incited three wretched women to stab a witch, for which they were brought to trial, Judge Burrough sent a message, that "if he did not leave off his conjuring, he would be caught and charmed in a manner he would not like" (*Hone's Year-Book*, p. 212). This is a reminiscence of Devon; but Cornwall, as our readers need not be told, is not a whit behind in blind credulity. There is something poetic and at least innocent in its superstitions about wells, such as those of Madron and Redruth, endowed with healing virtues; Lady Nant's well in Little Cowan, and St. Roche's, which can confer a gift of divination; or again in such wells as St. Keyne, to drink of which gives a husband or wife the whip-hand over his or her no longer "better half." But "witchcraft," and "ill-wishing," and "the evil eye" are types of superstition calculated to work mischief and foster a spirit of revenge and jealousy, especially among benighted peasants, capable of believing that the best cure for rheumatism is "the water in which a thunderbolt has been boiled"; and the certain specific for the goitre "to go before sunrise to the grave of the last-buried young man, and apply the dew, gathered by passing the hand thrice from the head to the foot of the grave, to the part affected." Devonshire folk are said to believe that a locked or bolted door, or a beam overhead, impedes the passage of a dying man's spirit. Moribund Devonians also object to goose-feathers.

Between superstitions and customs the line is somewhat indistinct; as not unfrequently the latter take their rise from the former. And it is curious how many of these in Devon and Cornwall exhibit resemblances to those of Slavonic countries. Thus the belief that the chief nocturnal delight of the Cornish Piakies is riding the colts and plaiting their manes is quite in keeping with the tastes attributed to the Russian Domovoy; and the ill-luck supposed in Devonshire to attach to washing clothes on Good Friday has an affinity, casual or other, to the superstition which forbids washing linen in Holy Week in Little Russia. In Russia this is a compliment to the Rusalas, or female water-spirits, and a breach of the custom might be visited by death through drowning. In Devon it is said "to wash out one of the family." So, too, the Devonshire and Cornish custom of "crying the neck" at harvest, which consists in tying up a small sheaf (plaited and decorated with flowers, and consisting of the finest ears of the last wheatsheaf in a field), forming a ring and chanting a rhyme around it, and then carrying it to be hung up till next year's harvest in the farmhouse kitchen, resembles very much the Russian carrying home of the sheaf, and placing it in the house beneath the Holy picture. The Furry Day (8th of May) at Helston, and St. Piran's Day (5th of March) which is a great day with the Cornish miners, have much in them akin to Slavonic customs and folklore. On Furry Day all the Helston folk wear flowers, and form a "halantow," which means in Cornish a procession for walking the boundaries. On St. Piran's festival the tinsers dress up a figure called Jack-a-Lent, meant to represent Judas Iscariot, and set it up to be burnt, or shot at, or thrown down a chimney. It has been surmised that the former custom has some connexion with the Roman Floralia, while the origin of the latter is more obscure. But may not both be relics of sacred rites typical of the birth of spring and the death of winter, and referable to Aryan origin, as are other customs kept up by Latin or Teutonic peoples? In Russia one mode of guessing as to a future partner for life is to set a table for a chance comer at the season of Epiphany. In Devon the curious maiden carries hemp-seed to the church porch on St. Valentine's Eve, and scatters it on her way home in the faith that she will have a vision of her future husband eating it up. Clearly customs repeat themselves.

Amongst curious customs of Devonshire Mrs. Whitcombe gives a full account of "Wassailing the Apple-trees," kept up in the belief that

The more or less fruit they will bring,
As you do give them wassailing.

This modern sacrifice or libation to Pomona is celebrated on Old Christmas Eve, and consists in a tribute of cakes and cider to the "old apple-tree" as well as to the guests. Mrs. Whitcombe omits to note, what Brand and Hone commemorate, that before sprinkling the cider on the roots, each of the ring of wassailers has a drink himself, and that the drink is compounded of roasted apples and cider in a milk-pan. She should have noted, too, that they do not waste the liquor on an unfruitful tree.

A strange custom was in vogue till 1837 at Comb Martin, in North Devon, which had a legend, though an obscure one, at its back. It was called "Hunting the Earl of Rone," and was peculiar to Ascension Day, on which festival "a procession was formed of mummers—one representing the Earl wearing a grotesque mask, a smock-frock, and twelve sea-biscuits strung round his neck; a hobby-horse masked and armed with a mapper—i.e. an instrument shaped like a horse's mouth, with teeth; a fool masked; a donkey with a necklace of twelve biscuits, and a troop of gunners." These last "marched to Lady's Wood, near the village, and found the Earl hidden in the brushwood. They fired a volley,

set him on the donkey face to tail, and thus took him to the sea, joined by the hobby-horse and fool. At certain points they fired, and the Earl fell mortally wounded. The spectators had to contribute largess, and if they refused, the hobby-horse laid hold of them with his mapper" (pp. 33-4). There is no mention of this custom in Hunt's *Romances and Drolls*, or in similar books bearing on the customs and legends of the West to which we have referred; but Mrs. Whitcombe cites a tradition which may have a germ of truth, or may have been invented to account for the custom—namely, that in the Irish Rebellion an Earl of Tyrone landed from a little vessel on the coast, and took refuge in Lady's Wood, subsisting on a string of sea-biscuits until he was taken by soldiers in pursuit.

From this misty story the transition to the "legends" is natural. The rivers issuing from Dartmoor had a superstitious repute of old, and the moor-men still hear an ill omen in the "Cry of the Dart," or sound of the mountain stream. The wish-hounds haunt the moor in quest of unbaptized children, and frequent the narrow lanes on St. John's Eve, leaving marks of their cloven feet on the track homeward to Dewerston Rock. In the vulgar belief each kistvaen, circle, and cromlech betokens a treasure-hoard, and each is supposed to be watched by the devil and his hounds, to the sudden destruction, not unheralded by brimstone fumes, of the covetous-minded. Cranmere Pool, in the same region, is the Devonian Tartarus, just as Sir Francis Drake represents the well-finder Danaus to the simple folk of Plymouth; and the "sow with its litter," which figures in the *Eneid* repeats itself in the legends of the windows of Braunton Church in Lundy Island. To Exmoor and North Devon belong the curious stories of one Fergus, a highwayman with a famous horse, which Mr. Blackmore has pressed into the service of *Lorna Doone*; and "the Warren" near Bridgewater, on the north coast, was the retreat of a daring gang of robbers as Lorna's kinsfolk. The story of the Traceys who from time out of mind "have the wind in their faces," and whose ancestor could find no place for repentance, is also a North Devon legend. Sir William, according to old wives' fables, still on stormy nights "makes bundles of sand and wisps of same" on "Woolacombe sands"; a penance which the learned in Cornish legends will remember was one of the many imposed on their mythic *bête noire*, Tregeagle. From the latter part of Mrs. Whitecombe's book we might cite some of the others, e.g. the task of drying and baling out Dosmary Pool with a bored limpet shell; but what little space we have left must be devoted to the less common traditions of Devon. One of these is connected with the good deeds of Isabella de Fortibus, Countess of Devon, the reputed planter of Wistman's Wood in Dartmoor. She was connected with Tiverton, and at a place near it, called the "Seven Crosses," a poor woman had seven babes at a birth. As her overburdened husband was carrying them in a large basket to the river, the good Countess met him, and asked what he was carrying. "He answered 'seven whelps.' 'Let me see them,' said the Countess. 'They are only puppies,' he replied again, 'not worth the rearing.' However the Countess insisted on seeing them, and finding them seven babies, she took them from the father, hastened home, and brought them all up; and tradition affirms that they became seven learned divines." The peasant who unintentionally conferred such a boon upon the Church seems to have regarded his sevenfold litter in much the same light as a gardener's son we have heard of, who, when shown his new-born twin brothers, remarked, "Father, we'll save this 'un." Another legend of the South-East of Devon introduces St. Dunstan, and contains a bit of weather-lore not noted in Mr. Swainson's recent book. St. Dunstan had brewed "a peck o' maut" and wanted to sell it, when the devil appeared to him and bargained to blight all the apple-trees, and enhance the value of the Saint's ale by stopping the cider supply, on the usual condition of an assignment of his soul. "St. Dunstan stipulated that the trees should be blighted in three days, which fell on the 17th, 18th, and 19th of May, St. Dunstan's day being the last of these." It is said that the farmers still watch the weather about this time with great anxiety as to their orchards, and attribute the untoward frosts which blight the apple crop to the Devil's compact with the Saint. How the Saint got out of his share in the covenant Mrs. Whitecombe does not tell us; but it is characteristic of more than one of Mrs. Whitecombe's stories that they lack a sequel. As we have already remarked, with so rich a theme she might have made a better book; but some gratitude is due to her for what she has done.

THE VICISSITUDES OF BESSIE FAIRFAX.
WE have heard before now of *Hamlet* with the part of Hamlet left out, of a novel without a hero, and a story without a plot; but we have seldom met with one which exemplified the last condition of things so fully as the *Vicissitudes of Bessie Fairfax*. Surely never were three substantial volumes based on a more slender foundation. But, seeing what they are, there is no reason why they should not have gone on to thirty; no reason indeed why they should have ever ended until Bessie had died of old age and been decently buried in the family grave.

The "vicissitudes" of which Holme Lee has constituted her-

* *The Vicissitudes of Bessie Fairfax*. By Holme Lee, Author of "The Beautiful Miss Barrington," &c. &c. 3 vols. London: Smith, Elder, & Co. 1874.

self the chronicler are by no means of a sensational kind, and may be summed up in very few words. Bessie's mother dies when she is a little child, and her father marries again, the second wife being a woman who is as true a mother to her as if she had been really her own. Soon after this second marriage her father dies, but his family, a proud and rich set of people whom he has offended by his two unworldly alliances, ignore both the widow and orphan, and leave them to struggle on together as they best may. Presently Mrs. Fairfax in her turn marries again, her husband being a Mr. Carnegie, the doctor of the village where she and little Bessie live; and Mr. Carnegie is as good to Bessie as the stepmother has been. These worthy people have a large family, chiefly of sturdy boys, and Bessie is naturally, but not unkindly, made into a kind of nurse to the little people. Hence her education is not remarkable for its aesthetic refinement; and though she has learnt to speak the truth, to be considerate and kind, also to ride without fear, she has learnt nothing else considered indispensable for gentlewoman.

Mr. Fairfax senior, the old squire of Abbotsmead in Woldshire, if a hard unrelenting man, was surely somewhat tried by his sons and their queer marriages. He has three, whereof the eldest marries a mad woman, the second a Xantippe, and the third, Bessie's father, a couple of unmotored young ladies without family or money. The first two marriages are childless; of the third Bessie is the only result. When the wife of the eldest brother Frederick has been pronounced incurably insane, and Laurence's Xantippe mercifully departs this life, leaving behind her in her husband's mind so much distaste to conjugal felicity that he "would no more of it," the old Squire remembers Bessie, now about fifteen years of age, and sends a lawyer's letter to the Carnegies to demand her from them. As there is no help for it, Bessie is delivered to her grandfather, sent to school at Caen for three years, then taken home to Abbotsmead in Woldshire as the young heiress apparent to whom ultimately the whole estate will belong. She is destined, in her grandfather's mind, to marry a certain Mr. Cecil Burleigh, a young man of good birth, passable brains, and stinted means, a great favourite with old Mr. Fairfax, who thinks it an excellent way to make the young man's fortune by giving him Bessie and her laphul of gold. Of course Bessie has left behind her at Beechhurst the well-known boy-love of inferior birth and superior abilities. She therefore remains constant to Harry Musgrave and refuses Cecil Burleigh. On which her grandfather alters his will, makes over to Cecil all the fortune she was to have had, leaves her only a paltry five thousand pounds, and Bessie receives the news without emotion, though "she blushed, put up her eyebrows, and smiled as she said, 'Then I am a poor young woman again?'" She saw at once what was absurd, pathetic, vexatious, in the descent from the dignity of riches; but she was not angry." After which she goes back to the Forest, where the Carnegies live, marries Harry Musgrave, and pities Lady Latimer, an old lady who moves through the pages handling the threads of the story every now and then in a perfunctory way, but having no vital influence or action therein. Indeed this may be said of every person and every event outside the skeleton we have drawn. We have seldom read a book with less sense of growth in it. The real story is told with only very little more amplification than we have given it, and all the rest is fringe and padding. The last scene of all, that which closes the book, may be given as an example of the strangely unsatisfactory treatment of the whole. Bessie has been lamenting to her husband the necessary loneliness of her friend Lady Latimer. Harry answers sensibly enough:—

"My dear child, all the world is lonely more or less—she more, we less. But doing all the good she can—and so much good—she must have many hours of pure and high satisfaction. I am glad we met."

And Bessie was glad. These chance meetings so far away gave her sweet intervals of reverie about friends at home. She kept her tender heart for them, but had never a regret that she had left them all for Harry Musgrave's sake. She sat musing with lovely pensive face. Harry looked up from his work again. The sky was heavenly serene, there was a cool air stirring, and slow moving shadows of cloud were upon the lake.

"I am tired of these songs just now," said Harry, rising and stepping over to the window where his wife sat. "This is a day to find out something new—let us go down the garden to the landing, and take a boat. We will ask for a roll or two of bread and some wine, and we can stay as late as we please."

Bessie came out of her dream, and did his bidding with a grace. And that was the day's diversion.

We think it would be hard to find a book where the story ran more completely into sand than this, or one where the ending was more tamely conceived or more vaguely touched. This indeed is the great demerit of the whole performance; it is dull and vague. The plot is nothing, the characters have no work to do, the incidents are feeble, the dialogues without point or consequence; the writing, to be sure, is sometimes smart, but more often odd, and the attention fails as the story flags. We have such sentences as, "Bessie was not to wait for when the hour came"; "Young Musgrave and the young Carnegies called cousins," instead of called each other cousins, a phrase repeated again if not oftener; she "smiled superior"; and, if we might venture to add without seeming hypercritical, "little trots." A little trot is all very well when women are talking familiarly of children, but it looks silly in print; and to smile superior, and to call cousins, are phrases open to grave question. But there is a curious ring of affected provincialism in this book; and the style is so queer, abrupt, and catchy all

through that we seem to be reading by jerks. Take this small extract:—

"Wait for me, Miss Fairfax," said Margaret as she dismounted. "Come to my room." And Bessie went without a word, though her lips were laughing. She was laughing at herself, at her incongruousness, at her trivial mortifications. Margaret would set her at her ease, and Bessie learnt that she had a rare charm in her hair, both from its colour and the manner of its growth. It was lovely, Margaret told her, and pressed its crisp shining abundance with her hand delicately.

"That is a comfort in adverse circumstances," said Bessie with a light in her eyes. Then they ran downstairs to find the morning-room deserted, and all the company gone in luncheon.

Elsewhere we read of the little girls, "at a side table, sociable and happy in under tones"; and Miss Buff panting up the hill "with fat tears running down her cheeks." "She had barely time for a word, Mr. Carnegie always cut short leave-takings." In this scene—it is the parting scene where Bessie leaves the Forest and her old home for school at Caen—we read further that "Bessie's nose was pink with tears, and her eyes glittered, but she was in good heart. She looked behind her as long as she could see her mother, and Jack and Willy coursing after the chaise with damp pocket-handkerchiefs a flutter [sic], and then she turned her face the way she was going, and said with a shudder, 'It is a beautiful sunny morning, but for all that, it is cold!'"

Among the few incidents in this novel, the fact that Mr. Laurence Fairfax, the old squire's favourite son, and the one who vowed he would have no more conjugal felicity when his special Xantippe died, marries secretly a little lady in blue, has two big boys, and tells no one of his deed, is one of the most unnecessarily complicated and obscure. His wife is the niece of the local milliner, and the local milliner, "a large-featured woman of a grave and wise countenance," discourses in this wise:—

Miss Jocund took off her glasses, and gave Bessie a deliberate, discerning look-over. "Very happy, ma'am, indeed. Blue, of course?" she said. Bessie acquiesced. "Any taste, any style?" the milliner further queried.

"Yes. Give me always simplicity, and no imitations," was the unhesitating, concise reply.

"Miss Fairfax and I understand one another. Anything more to-day, ladies?" Bessie and Mrs. Stokes considered for a moment, and then said they would not detain Miss Jocund any longer from her newspaper. "Ah! ladies, who can exist altogether on *chiffons*?" rejoined the milliner half apologetically. "I do love my *Times*—I call it my 'gentleman.' I cannot live without my gentleman. Yes, ladies, he does smell of tobacco. That is because he spends a day and night in the bar-parlour of the Shakespeare Tavern before he visits me. So do evil communications corrupt good manners. The door, Miss Lawson—Good afternoon, ladies."

She was the daughter of a physician who drank, and died in debt, and she was a clever and well-read woman; but why, when she has to tell Lady Angleby the story of Mr. Laurence Fairfax and her own niece Rosy, does she use such expressions as—"I reckon, your ladyship, that Dan Cupid is no more open in his tactics than ever he was"; "it suited all parties to keep it a secret at first; but a secret is like a birth—when its time is full, forth it must come"; "Two little boys, with Fairfax writ large on their faces, are bad to hide"; "and that is the whole story, an' it please your ladyship"; "I warrant it did not please her ladyship at all," answers Mr. Laurence Fairfax in the same key. Has Holme Lee been undergoing a course of Mr. Henry Kingsley? We are sorry to see her give way to such miserable affectation, and gravely set down conversations which are utterly impossible among sane people, and which therefore give a false and artificial air to the whole work.

The prevailing characteristics of the *Vicissitudes of Bessie Fairfax* being vagueness, feebleness, and oddity in style and story alike, we can scarcely expect the dramatic personae to have much individuality. Nor have they. Bessie herself is a nice, bright, healthy kind of girl, but beyond a certain cool common-sense which makes her take things in the main quietly, and a certain quickness of temper which disposes her to give sharp answers and "scornful" looks, we cannot make out anything very decisive. She is an affectionate little nurse and a merry brown gipsy in the opening chapters; but she reconciles herself to the loneliness and want of freedom at her school with admirable self-command. Always inclined to simplicity and fond of family life, of kissing little boys' hard round cheeks, she yet contrives to make herself happy enough in the dull grandeur of Abbotsmead, where she has neither duties nor pleasures. But she is not cold. She blushes furiously on the smallest provocation, and as soon recovers from any temporary embarrassment into which she may have been cast. Thus she unites the contradictory qualities of extreme susceptibility with extreme self-control, and the most admirable wisdom of action with the most impetuous contempt for formal rules. She somehow wants a central characteristic round which these contradictory qualities might have crystallized in a more harmonious manner than at present; and all the other persons want more definite drawing everywhere. It seems to us that the book shows unmistakable signs of fatigue in the writer. There is a total absence of freshness and vigour; and oddity is but a bad substitute for these qualities. Holme Lee has done good work in her day, but she has been gradually sinking into the "scumbling" stage, of which *Bessie Fairfax* is the culminating example. We are sorry to have this to say, but with all our respect for past excellence, we are forced to condemn present failure; and Holme Lee has undoubtedly failed in her present novel.

FRENCH LITERATURE.

THE study of the beginnings of French literature is still vigorously prosecuted by our neighbours on the other side of the Channel, and one of its most recent and noteworthy results is a translation of Frederick Dietz's *Grammar of the Romance Languages*.^{*} It is certainly surprising that so celebrated a work should never before have appeared in a French dress, as it is the best authority on an important branch of comparative philology. MM. Auguste Brachet and Gaston Paris have undertaken the task of introducing M. Dietz to their fellow-countrymen, and no scholars were more thoroughly qualified to do so. The grammar is advertised to appear in three volumes, each embracing two instalments; the whole of the first volume is now before us, and the entire work will be completed in the course of next year. Besides a French translation of the German text, MM. Brachet and Paris purpose issuing a supplement containing—(1) A detailed introduction discussing the history of Romance languages and of Romance philology; (2) important additions and corrections; (3) an analytical index. So far as we can judge from the two fasciculi we have received, the version is very well done, and the external appearance of the work deserves unqualified praise. The plan of printing separately the additions to the original work seems to us far preferable to a system of foot-notes, because it secures both fulness and consecutiveness.

If the study of philology taken as a whole is one of the most interesting that can occupy us, it is no less essential to inquire separately into certain problems connected with the alterations of letters, and with phonetic changes; special monographs are of course capable of developments from which authors are precluded whose researches cover a wide ground, and problems which in a general grammar must be compressed into a paragraph or two may profitably afford materials for several hundred pages. Such is the case with the valuable publication of M. Joret,[†] which treats of the power of the letter *c* in the Romance languages. The revolutions through which the vulgar Latin has passed in order to issue in the Italian, Spanish, Portuguese, Provençal, and French languages were very numerous and various. Still they can be reduced to rules; and if we take a single letter as an instance, we can form some idea of the rest. M. Joret has done this with much success. After an introduction in which he examines successively all the Latin gutturals, he discusses in detail the numerous transformations of the consonant *c*, some of which had never been dealt with before. The examples he gives and the principles he lays down throw much light upon the formation of the leading French dialects, and will prove of considerable use in determining the true reading of controverted Norman texts.

The third edition of M. Taine's essays[‡] has been revised by the author, and contains several pieces which did not form part of the previous ones. Amongst others we would notice the preface to M. Mérimée's *Lettres à une inconnue*. We do not wish to renew now the discussion which was carried on so warmly about the posthumous correspondence of the author of *Colomba* with his anonymous friend; but we must say that M. Taine's estimate of M. Mérimée appears to us far too favourable. The impression derived from an attentive perusal of the famous *Lettres* leads us rather to incline to the judgment passed by M. Cuvillier Fleury in the *Journal des Débats*. Singularly devoid, not only of enthusiasm, but even of moral feeling, M. Mérimée was essentially an Epicurean; enjoyment was his great object, and he entertained a contempt for mankind which necessarily led him to admire despotism unreservedly. If mankind consists mainly of rogues and wild beasts, the safety of the few *dilettanti* who know *il segreto per esser felice* requires that these rogues and wild beasts should be kept in constant terror.

M. Jules Van Praet has just published the second volume of a work[§] which deserves to be extensively read, and which is undoubtedly a valuable contribution to the history of political science. Not that the author indulges in theories or deals with abstract questions; but lessons of practical wisdom naturally follow from the biography of the personages whose portraits he sketches, and suggest themselves at once to the reader. The subjects examined in the present octavo are the politics of Louis XIV. during the latter part of his reign, and the situation of Europe from the beginning of the eighteenth century to the Revolution. Louis XIV. seemed to have closed an era characterized by features peculiarly its own; treaties, wars, diplomacy, the whole *animus* of the Regency moved in a new groove, and had nothing in common with the traditions of the *grand siècle*. M. Van Praet appears to us eminently happy in unravelling the mysteries of international politics and in describing their general bearings.

We have to thank Madame Lenormant for a curious little volume on Chateaubriand^{||}; it consists of three parts, which must be noticed separately. In the first place, we should remember that the autobiography published under the title of *Les mémoires d'outre-tombe* had been begun as early as 1809; it was then called *Mémoires de ma vie*. The author kept un-

ceasingly correcting his MS.; not only particular expressions but entire paragraphs were modified, and sacrifices were made to the spirit of the times. The original draft of the work had fortunately been preserved; it is now published, and will interest readers who are curious about questions of style. By comparing the present volume with the introductory books of the *Mémoires d'outre-tombe* we see that Chateaubriand's original production was infinitely superior to the autobiography as we now have it; as time went on, neologisms and quasi-slang took the place of simplicity, and the author exaggerated, as if on purpose, all the faults of his style. Next to the *Mémoires de ma vie*, we find an admirable essay by M. Charles Lenormant himself on his illustrious friends, and the volume terminates with a series of letters addressed by Chateaubriand to Madame Récamier.

The volume of M. Gaston Feugère on Erasmus^{*} was prepared as an exercise for the degree of *docteur ès lettres*; it is a well-written essay, and describes in an interesting manner the many-sided character of the illustrious scholar. The author remarks that the common characteristic of the Renaissance *littérateurs* is universality; they apply their intellectual energy to every branch of composition. Hence the difficulty of duly appreciating them; hence also the diversity of opinions pronounced upon them. Some staunch Roman Catholics have considered Erasmus an arch-heretic. Father Reynaud accused him of Manicheism, and traced to his dangerous influence all the heretical teaching of the sixteenth century. On the other hand, we find him raised by M. de la Bizardière to the dignity of a Father of the Church, and Marsollier compared his *Apologies* with St. Paul's epistles. Finally, Guy Patin, Cardinal de Retz, and many others admire in Erasmus a sceptic who saw both the errors of the Church and the want of logic of the Reformers, who was careful not to excite the suspicion of temporal rulers by too open a manifestation of free-thinking, but at the same time was enlightened enough to estimate at their own value the pretensions of the Papacy. M. Feugère does not think that Erasmus should be classed amongst the adherents of any distinct school or coterie; essentially independent in his mode of thought, he may be considered as the true embodiment of the Renaissance.

When we come to study the majestic figure of Pope Gregory VII.[†], we find ourselves in the presence of a man respecting whom no hesitation is possible. Never were the principles of absolutism more completely set forth than by that remarkable priest, and his history is one of the most striking chapters in the annals of the Christian Church. M. Langeron has discussed it in an interesting volume. The life of Gregory VII. was so eventful that it must always offer plenty of materials for a writer fond of dramatic episodes; but it is also important from the fact that the political and ecclesiastical questions mooted then were those which even now agitate modern society. The religious world, says M. Langeron, has not changed since the Crusades, and the *Syllabus* of Pius IX. only re-echoes the *Dictatus* of Hildebrand. The prejudices, the struggles, the opposition are exactly the same; and if the Ultramontanist doctrines invented by Gregory VII. and endorsed by his successors have remained a dead letter in the nineteenth century, we must ascribe this result not to an imaginary conversion of the Court of Rome, but to the progress of civilization and to the rapid development of the principles on which modern society rests. From these few words it will be seen in what spirit M. Langeron's book is written. It has the fault of being too sketchy, and composed too much in the style of a pamphlet.

If M. Langeron treats history as a controversialist, and makes the life of Gregory VII. the basis for a general bill of indictment against the Papal system, M. Paul Dupuy endeavours to show[‡], on his side, that Protestantism represents a political as well as a religious theory. The Reformation, he says in his preface, speedily developed a strongly marked political doctrine entirely independent of its dogmatic bias, and sometimes even unconsciously opposed to it. This doctrine, closely allied to the Presbyterian form of Church government, was embodied in the metaphysical teaching first of Locke, afterwards of Kant, and its practical exponents were the founders of the United States of America. M. Dupuy considers that the French Revolution was a development of the Reformation, and he carefully distinguishes between the theological spirit of Protestantism and its general views on freedom of conscience. The volume itself is a series of essays written from the revolutionary point of view, but with this remarkable feature, that M. Dupuy, instead of upholding Rousseau, Voltaire, and Montesquieu, as the chiefs of the liberal school, transfers that honour to the leaders of the Reformation. Hubert Languet, Duplessis-Mornay, and Luther stood up for man's individual rights, and therefore they must, says M. Dupuy, be identified with the philosophers whose political axiom is the sovereignty of the people.

The love of books of travel has decidedly taken possession of the French mind, if we may judge from current popular literature. M. Théodore Duret takes us as far as China[§]; his aim is to give us trustworthy information respecting topics left unnoticed by the common run of travellers; and as his sketches are taken from

^{*} Grammaire des langues romanes. Par F. Dietz; traduite en français par A. Brachet et G. Paris. Vol. I. Paris: Vieweg.

[†] Du C dans les langues romanes. Par Ch. Joret. Paris: Vieweg.

[‡] Essais de critique et d'histoire. Par H. Taine. 3^e Édition. Paris and London: L. Hachette & Co.

[§] Essais sur l'histoire politique des derniers siècles. Par Jules Van Praet. Vol. 2. Bruxelles: Bruylants Christophe.

^{||} Souvenirs d'enfance et de jeunesse de M. de Chateaubriand. Paris: Lévy.

^{*} Erasme; étude sur sa vie et ses ouvrages. Par G. Feugère. Paris and London: L. Hachette & Co.

[†] Grégoire VII et les origines de la politique ultramontaine. Par E. Langeron. Paris: Thorin.

[‡] Études politiques. Par Paul Dupuy. Paris: Germer-Bailliére.

[§] Voyage en Asie. Par Théodore Duret. Paris: Lévy.

scenes hitherto unvisited, he claims to interest us without having recourse to fiction. M. de Varigny's clever book on the Sandwich Islands*, besides giving a geographical description of the country, relates the wonderful changes which it has witnessed during the last century. Fourteen years spent by the author in that archipelago, as member of the Government, have supplied him with ample means of information, and it is interesting to see how the questions of universal suffrage, state religion, public education, and finance have been treated by the islanders of the Pacific Ocean.

The two writers whom we shall next mention, instead of merely describing the places they have visited, aim at a style of composition which reminds us of Alexandre Dumas. M. Albert Eynaud, in particular, excels in portraying scenes of a tragic character, and the three sketches grouped together under the title *Séances de la vie orientale*† are very much above the average of modern French novelettes. M. Charles Monselet wishes us to believe that he is treading in Sterne's footsteps; a dangerous ambition which can only be justified by extraordinary humour combined with brilliancy of style. M. Monselet's amusing but rather insignificant chapters are mere *feuilletons* dashed off without much trouble, introducing anecdotes which are rather commonplace, and persons of provincial origin who might as well have been left to their primitive obscurity.‡

M. l'abbé Pioger's purpose in publishing his new book is twofold. In the first place he wishes to reconcile science with religion; in the next he attempts to show that the doctrine of the plurality of inhabited worlds is by no means contrary to the teachings of revealed truth. The philosophers of the last century attacked Christianity in the name of nature; the Positivists of our own day appeal to science; but, as M. Pioger remarks §, we must not forget that D'Holbach and his friends were as sure of the infallibility of their own doctrines as M. Littré's disciples, and yet what is the result? There is scarcely a single point in the whole range of physical science on which our self-confident forefathers have not been found desperate blunderers by the equally dogmatic philosophers of the present day. Give us a body of propositions demonstrated beyond the possibility of a doubt, and we will gladly accept it at once; but when the weapon with which our opponents are armed is nothing but a bundle of hypotheses and sophisms, we may be excused for despising it. Such, in a few words, is the substance of M. Pioger's introductory chapter; the book itself shows an extensive acquaintance with the facts and problems of astronomical science.

We have received two valuable and important works by M. Le Sellyer, a distinguished barrister, formerly lecturer at the Paris Faculté de Droit. In the first of these treatises || the author goes through the various details of criminal law, viewed in its principles and its applications. What, he asks, is the character of criminality? what are the acts from which it results, and the conditions which constitute it? Such is the subject of the first chapter. The second enters minutely into the details of penalty, and enumerates the rules to be applied in every case where punishment of any kind should be inflicted. In another chapter M. Le Sellyer discusses the persons against whom proceedings are to be instituted in case of damages caused by misdemeanor or crime of any kind. If the action is a public one, what should the penalty be? if it is private, what the compensation? This last chapter will be interesting to students of international law; it explains how and when foreigners in general, and political agents in particular, may be amenable to the criminal legislation of France, and to the penalties which that legislation enforces. The work is copiously illustrated with footnotes and completed by an excellent index. It is not sufficient, however ¶, to explain the causes and effects of criminality; we require also to know what persons are qualified to prosecute the guilty; what are the means of repression at the disposal of the various tribunals; under what circumstances the right of appeal exists, and what forms are to be followed in exercising that right; how far prescription is allowed, &c. &c. M. Le Sellyer has treated these topics in a second work which forms a sequel to the one we have just noticed; it is abundantly elucidated by references to cases, and accompanied by every useful help in the way of tables, indices, and summaries.

The eleventh volume of the new edition of Saint-Simon's Memoirs, which has just been published **, contain incidents of the most interesting description. The downfall of Madame des Ursins, the intrigues of the Duchess du Maine to obtain the regency for her husband, the gloomy state of France, and the death of Louis XIV. are subjects worthy of an artist's pencil, and the wonderful brilliancy of the Duke's talent has treated them to perfection. When we read the history of those times, we cannot help being astonished at Saint-Simon's partiality for the Duke of Orleans, a man who with many eminent qualities combined the grossest vices. We do not

* Quatorze ans aux îles Sandwich. Par C. de Varigny. Paris and London: Hachette & Co.

† Scènes de la vie orientale. Par Albert Eynaud. Paris: Lévy.

‡ Les souliers de Sterne. Par Charles Monselet. Paris: Lévy.

§ Le dogme chrétien et la pluralité des mondes habités. Par M. l'abbé Pioger. Paris: Didier.

|| Traité de la criminalité, de la pénalité et de la responsabilité. Par A. F. Le Sellyer. Paris: Durand and Pedone Lauriel.

¶ Traité de l'exercice et de l'extinction des actions publiques et privées. Par A. F. Le Sellyer. Paris: Durand and Pedone Lauriel.

** Mémoires du duc de Saint-Simon. Vol. 2. Paris and London: L. Hachette & Co.

mean to say that the Memoirs systematically whitewash the Regent's character, but still it is singular to find a *grand seigneur*, conspicuous for high principles and boasting of intimate friends amongst the most religious persons at Court, being on familiar terms with a man whose everyday conduct was notorious by its profligacy. The affairs of Spain contribute several interesting episodes to this volume, and Saint-Simon gives us details about the celebrated *Camerera-mayor* for the further elucidation of which we can now refer to the works of MM. Geffroy and Combes.*

A few months ago the French Government issued the first volume of Cardinal Mazarin's diplomatic correspondence as part of the *Collection de documents inédits*. We have now to notice in the same series a handsome quarto of a different character, though equally important †; it is a collection of miscellaneous pieces relating to various epochs in the history of France, and bearing upon subjects connected with ecclesiastical affairs, politics, and literature. Amongst the contents of this book are two hundred letters by the celebrated John de Witt, extending from 1653 to 1671, which throw considerable light upon European diplomacy during the reign of Louis XIV. The letters of Balzac, which follow immediately after, are of a more purely literary description; they contain a number of excellent criticisms on French and foreign authors, besides anecdotes completing the information given by Madame de Motteville, Tallemant des Réaux, and other memoir-writers of the beginning of the seventeenth century.

M. E. Feydeau's reminiscences of Théophile Gautier ‡ contain a few details which may be useful to future historians; but the biographer occupies a much larger space in the volume than his friend, and he gives us more about *Fanny* than about *Le capitaine Fracasse*. The great fault of the volume, however, is the absurd tone of panegyric prevailing from beginning to end, and the senseless denunciations of the unhappy mortals who persist in thinking that *Mademoiselle de Maupin* is a scandalously bad book. M. Feydeau says that there is no possible reason why authors should be condemned for doing either in prose or in poetry what Rubens and Correggio have done with their brush. This is a point of aesthetics which might perhaps be profitably discussed; at any rate we persist in thinking that art is no excuse for immorality.

The two volumes recently published of M. Emile Deschamps's *Oeuvres complètes* § are devoted to his dramatic works. At the time when Romanticism first broke out in France every literary aspirant thought himself bound to try his hand on Shakespeare. Shakespeare was the God of the new generation, and many a youthful poet who could not understand a word of English took up Letourneau's translation of *Macbeth* and *Hamlet*, reduced it to the proportions of the French stage, and put it into rhymed Alexandrines. Thus M. Frédéric Soulié arranged *Romeo and Juliet*, M. Jules Lacroix applied himself to *Macbeth*, and M. Alfred de Vigny adapted *Othello* to the latitude of Paris. M. Emile Deschamps undertook to give as faithful a version as he could (for dramatic purposes) both of *Macbeth* and of *Romeo and Juliet*. Moreover, he cut out of *King Lear* the materials for a kind of opera which was performed at Versailles in 1853. The last-named work deserves to be mentioned as a curious instance of the extraordinary uses to which a work of genius can be put. The two former tragedies, on the contrary, seem to us superior to all other French renderings of Shakespeare with which we are acquainted. The remaining dramatic productions of M. Emile Deschamps are a libretto for the opera of *Stradella*, composed by Niedermeyer, an arrangement of *Don Giovanni*, two comedies, and a versified adaptation of Molière's amusing plays, *Le médecin malgré lui* and *Georges Dandin*. The necessity of taking liberties with the works of the author of *Tartuffe* is not very apparent to us, unless it be as a mere literary exercise.

M. André Theuriet's *Mademoiselle Guignon* || is a very melancholy story, but we can recommend it as a good specimen of modern French novels. If M. Edouard Cadol wrote in a less sketchy way, and took the trouble of describing with some minuteness the characters he introduces, we should have no fault to find in his *Madame Elise*.¶ M. Henri de la Madelène carries us to the South of France **, introducing us to manners, scenes, and personages which have quite a stamp of originality; his volume comprises three tales, the first two of which are excellent, whilst the third reminds us too much of M. Prosper Mérimée's inimitable style.

* Lettres de la princesse des Ursins. Publiées par M. Geffroy. Paris: Didier.

La princesse des Ursins; études sur sa vie et son caractère politique. Par F. Combes. Paris: Didier.

† Mélanges historiques; choix de documents. Vol. 1. Paris: Didot.

‡ Théophile Gautier; souvenirs intimes. Par Ernest Feydeau. Paris: Plon.

§ Oeuvres complètes d'Emile Deschamps: Théâtre. Paris: Lemerre.

|| Mademoiselle Guignon. Par André Theuriet. Paris: Charpentier.

¶ Madame Elise. Par Edouard Cadol. Paris: Lévy.

** Contes Contadins. Par Henri de la Madelène. Paris: Charpentier.

NOTICE.

We beg leave to state that we decline to return rejected Communications; and to this rule we can make no exception.

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ADVERTISEMENTS.

MUSICAL UNION.—PAPINI and DUVERNOY.—Tuesday, May 5, SECOND MATINEE.—Quartet, Beethoven, No. 2; Trio, E flat, Beethoven; MS. Solo for Violoncello, by Papini, for Lasserre; Quintet, B flat, Mendelssohn; Pianoforte. Single Admissions, 7s. 6d., to be had of Cramer, Lucas, and Austin, St. James's J. ELLIOT, Director.

THE SOCIETY OF PAINTERS in WATER-COLOURS.—The SEVENTIETH ANNUAL EXHIBITION is now OPEN, 5 Pall Mall East. From Nine till Seven.—Admittance, 1s. Catalogue, 6d. ALFRED D. FRIPP, Secretary.

"THE SHADOW of DEATH."—Painted by Mr. HOLMAN HUNT. Now on View from Ten till Five. A spacious Platform has been erected, so that Visitors now have an unimpeded view of the Picture.

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AUTOTYPE FINE ART GALLERY.—ON VIEW.—PERMANENT FACSIMILES.—Prints from the Works of the GREAT MASTERS in the Continental and Home Galleries.—36 Rathbone Place (next to WINSTON & NEWTON).

BRITISH and FOREIGN SCHOOL SOCIETY.—The SIXTY-NINTH GENERAL MEETING of this Society will be held on Monday, May 11, 1874, in the Large Room, Borough Road.

The Chair will be taken by the Right Honourable the Earl RUSSELL, K.G., at Twelve o'clock.

The Borough Royal College and Schools will be open to visitors from 10 A.M. to 12 noon.

Tickets may be obtained by application at the Society's House, Borough Road.

ALFRED BOURNE, Secretary.

BRITISH MUSEUM.—The BRITISH MUSEUM will be CLOSED on the 1st and RE-OPENED on the 9th of May, 1874. No Visitor can be admitted from the 1st to the 7th of May, inclusive.

J. WINTER JONES, Principal Librarian.

British Museum, April 27, 1874.

ARTISTS' GENERAL BELEVOLENT INSTITUTION, for the Relief of Distressed Artists, their Widows and Orphans. President—Sir FRANCIS GRANT, P.R.A.—Sir HENRY JAMES, Q.C., M.P., will preside at a DINNER, to be held at White's Rooms, St. James's, on Saturday, May 9, at Six o'clock, in aid of the Funds of this Institution. The Cost of the Dinner, including Wines, £1 1s. Tickets can be obtained from the Stewards or Officers of the Society, who also will receive notice of Donations, to be announced at the Dinner.

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THE SCOTTISH CORPORATION.—His Royal Highness the PRINCE of WALES, Duke of Rothesay, K.G., the President. At a Special Court of this Corporation, held on this day, April 21, in our Hall, JOHN WEBSTER, Esq., M.D., F.R.S., one of the Honorary Physicians in the Chair, the following Candidates were at the close of the poll declared duly elected to the Posts of £25 and £12 per annum, viz.:—

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I certify the above to be correct.

JAMES FRASER,

Official Auditor to the Corporation.

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The Scottish Corporation Hall, April 20, 1874.

CHRISTIANITY CONTRASTED WITH BRAHMINISM.

AN ADDRESS to be given by NARAYAN SHESHADRI (a Converted Brahmin), on SUNDAY Afternoon, May 5, at Three o'clock, at St. James's Hall. The Area of the Hall is free to the Public.

TO PUBLIC SPEAKERS, LECTURERS, and READERS of PAPERS before SOCIETIES.—The Rev. A. J. D'ORSEY, E.D., Lecturer on Public Reading and Speaking at K. C. L., gives PRIVATE LESSONS in Articulation, Modulation, &c., at 13 Princess Square, W.

LADIES' SCHOOL, MARY STREET HOUSE, TAUNTON.—

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